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ART. I. *The Life and Pontificate of Leo the Tenth.* By William Roscoe. 4 Vols. 4to. 6l. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1805.

To discover the causes that produced the day which began to dawn in the fifteenth century, which opened on the world with so much brightness at the commencement of the ensuing æra, and which has shone with so much refulgence at subsequent periods, is a problem which has invariably attracted the particular attention of men of taste and genius. What were the circumstances in the state of society, what were the principles of our common nature, and what were the fortunate incidents which gave the impulse to the human mind that so materially affected the situation of men, and their relations with each other, have ever been admitted to be matters of liberal and laudable curiosity, which it would be highly advantageous to learn, and creditable to ascertain. Though, as is well known, some very accomplished men of the last age contemplated an undertaking of this kind, it was never carried into execution, but descended to our times a worthy object to challenge the exertions of the lovers of letters, and the aspirants after honourable fame. The taste, the diligence, and the proficiency in the requisite studies, displayed by Mr. Roscoe in his *Life of Lorenzo de' Medici*, seemed to point him out as the most proper person to supply this desideratum in modern literature. Though we were fully aware of the defects of that performance, we participated in the wish which was very general among scholars, that the able and ingenious author might not stop short in the career which he had so respectably commenced, but that he would extend his researches through the period, to the limits of which his preceding labours had carried him. This sentiment we expressed in our notice of his work *; and the opinion, which the public entertained on the subject, hav-

* See Rev. Vol. xx. N. S. p. 427.

ing been either adopted or anticipated by Mr. Roscoe, the effects of that decision are manifested by the volumes before us, of the contents of which we now proceed to give an account.

Readers of the *Life of Lorenzo* need not to be informed that Mr. Roscoe was well acquainted with the literature and affairs of Italy, nor that he had had ample materials within his reach for this arduous undertaking. What these are he states to us in his preface. In addition to the sources which are attainable by all, the author has been indebted for important communications to various public characters, and to numerous private friends; the curious at home and abroad have not only thrown open to him the most select libraries, and supplied him with works which are become very rare, but the archives of the *Palazzo vecchio* of Florence, and even those of the Vatican, have been laid under contribution to enrich the composition, which was intended to describe one of the most brilliant epochs in the history of mankind.

The first and nearly the half of the second volume are employed in bringing down the history from the birth of the subject of it, to his elevation to the Pontificate in 1513. The opening paragraph announces an event which cannot well be passed over in the review of a biographical performance. We are spared the trouble of perusing the usual pedigree given on these occasions, in consequence of the present work having been preceded by the Life of Lorenzo, and are concisely informed that 'Giovanni de' Medici, afterwards supreme pontiff by the name of Leo the Tenth, was the second son of Lorenzo de' Medici, called the Magnificent, by his wife Clarice, the daughter of Giacopo Orsino. He was born at Florence, on the eleventh day of December, 1475; and most probably received his baptismal name after his paternal great uncle, Giovanni, the second son of Cosmo de' Medici, who died in the year 1461; or from Giovanni Tornabuoni, the brother of Lucretia, mother of Lorenzo de' Medici, who was then living.'

The succeeding observations, though they might perhaps have been more properly introduced in a later stage of the history, are so candid and sensible, that it would be difficult to refrain from transcribing them:

'It is not to be denied, that the papal government, although founded on so singular a basis, and exercised with despotic authority, has been attended with some advantages peculiar to itself, and beneficial to its subjects. Whilst the choice of the sovereign, by the decision of a peculiar body of electors, on the one hand preserves the people from those dissensions which frequently arise from the disputed rights of hereditary claimants; on the other hand, it prevents those tumultuous debates which too frequently result from the violence of

a popular election. By this system the dangers of a minority in the governor are avoided, and the sovereign assumes the command at a time of life, when it may be presumed that passion is subdued by reason, and experience matured into wisdom. The qualifications by which the pope is supposed to have merited the supreme authority, are such as would be most likely to direct him in the best mode of exercising it. Humility, chastity, temperance, vigilance, and learning, are among the chief of these requisites; and although some of them have confessedly been too often dispensed with, yet few individuals have ascended the pontifical throne without possessing more than a common share of intellectual endowments. Hence the Roman pontiffs have frequently displayed examples highly worthy of imitation, and have signalized themselves, in an eminent degree, as patrons of science, of letters, and of art. Cultivating, as ecclesiastics, those studies which were prohibited or discouraged among the laity, they may in general be considered as superior to the age in which they have lived; and among the predecessors of Leo X. the philosopher may contemplate with approbation the eloquence and courage of Leo I. who preserved the city of Rome from the ravages of the barbarian Attila; the beneficence, candour, and pastoral attention of Gregory I. unjustly charged with being the adversary of liberal studies; the various acquirements of Silvester II. so extraordinary in the eyes of his contemporaries as to cause him to be considered as a sorcerer; the industry, acuteness, and learning of Innocent III. of Gregory IX. of Innocent IV. and of Pius II. and the munificence and love of literature so strikingly displayed in the character of Nicholas V.'

From these remarks, the reader will form an idea of the liberal and indulgent spirit which pervades the whole performance. The account of the young Giovanni's rapid advance through the several clerical gradations to the cardinalship, which was stated with so much minuteness in the author's former publication, is here repeated with the same particularity: but we were rather surprized to find the relation unaccompanied by any of those observations and reflections, which the extravagant ambition of Lorenzo, and the very culpable facility of Innocent VIII. so forcibly demanded. This strange incident calls to our recollection the observation of an old French General to a young Officer, who was endeavouring by court intrigue to obtain a higher rank than he could properly claim, "*le grade n'est rien, le merite est tout.*" It was impossible to treat a child in this preposterous way without doing injury to his mind, however finely gifted by nature. Had he been forced, like ordinary men, to advance by his merit, his character would most probably have been widely different, and perhaps the fate of the world had been the reverse of that which it experienced.

Chapter II. contains a very interesting view of the state of letters and of the learned men who flourished in Italy during the infancy of Giovanni: the latter are divided into four classes, those of Rome, Naples, Florence, and Ferrara: with those of Naples, we are told, were associated the provincials of that kingdom, and with those of Ferrara the literati of Mantua and Urbino. The young Giovanni, now Cardinal de' Medici, under which character we are in future to recognize him, till it merges finally in the highest dignity acknowleged in the western world, became resident at Rome at the age of seventeen; in which city, lived Pomponius Letus, Paolo Cortese, and Serafino d'Aquila, who ranked as the chiefs among the literati: but

'It must be confessed,' says Mr. Roscoe, 'that notwithstanding the laudable exertions of the few distinguished scholars before mentioned, that place had not hitherto brought forth those fruits which might have been expected from the munificence of Nicholas V. and the example of Pius II. Nor is it to be denied, that in almost every other city of Italy, the interests of letters and of science, were attended to with more assiduity than in the chief place in Christendom. At Naples an illustrious band of scholars had, under better auspices, instituted an academy, which had subsisted for many years in great credit. Of this the celebrated Pontano was at this time the chief director, whence it has usually been denominated *the academy of Pontano*. It was, however, originally established, in the reign of Alfonso I, by Antonio Beccatelli, Bartolommeo Facio, Lorenzo Valla, and other eminent men, whom that great patron of letters had attracted to his court. The place of assembly was denominated the Portico, and being situated near the residence of Beccatelli, that distinguished scholar, and favourite of Alfonso, was its earliest and most constant visitor. After the death of Beccatelli, his friend and disciple Pontano, was appointed chief of the academy, and under his direction it rose to a considerable degree of respectability.'

To no one who has in any degree deviated from the ordinary line of polite reading, is the name of Sanazzaro unknown, as not less an ornament to the Neapolitan Academy than Pontano. Having nicely appreciated the merits of the Arcadia, Mr. Roscoe observes;

'If, however, that performance of Sanazzaro had never been written, his sonnets and lyric pieces would have secured to him the distinction of one of the chief poets that Italy has produced. It has indeed been supposed, that if the increasing celebrity of Pietro Bembo, had not deprived Sanazzaro, of the hope of being considered as the principal restorer of Italian literature, he would have pursued that object with still greater energy and success. The rivalship of these two eminent men, whilst it rather cemented than relaxed the friendship that subsisted between them, eventually led

them

them to pursue, by a kind of tacit consent, each a different path to fame; and whilst Bembo persevered in cultivating his native tongue, Sanazzaro turned all his powers to the improvement of his talents for Latin poetry, in which department his productions will unavoidably occur to our future notice.'

The biographical particulars of the personages introduced in this chapter might have been spared: but we are sure that every reader of taste will set a high value on the accounts which are here given of their productions, and on the ingenious and candid criticisms with which they are accompanied. A fair and dispassionate *reviewer* of the labours of his precursors in the vast field of letters, Mr. Roscoe is himself intitled to every indulgence which can with justice be extended to him by *brother* critics.

In his third chapter, Mr. R. developes the proceedings which led to the invasion of Italy by Charles VIII. The scholar, however, will not be satisfied to take this account from any other than the eloquent though tedious pages of Guicciardini, and the simple relations of Phillip de Comines. A more brief narrative of this important event would here have sufficed; though it could not have been wholly passed over, since it led to the fall of the Medici family from the government of Tuscany, which is here detailed much at length. A lamentable consequence of this catastrophe is stated in the following paragraph;

'No sooner had the Medici quitted the city, than the rage of the populace broke out in open acts of violence. The palace of the Medici, and the houses of several of the chief officers of the state, who were supposed to be favourable to their party, were attacked and plundered. The residence of the cardinal, in the district of S. Antonio, experienced a similar fate; but a circumstance which cannot fail to excite the regret of every friend of the arts, is the destruction of the garden of S. Marco, established by the liberality and personal attention of Lorenzo the Magnificent, as an academy for the promotion of sculpture; the repository of the finest remains of antiquity, and the school of Michael Angelo. We might have pardoned the expunging of the figures of the rebels, painted on the walls of the palace, in the year 1434, or the obliteration of the labours of Andrea del Castagno, commemorating the conspiracy of the Pazzi, in 1478; but the destruction of this collection was an irreparable misfortune to the progress of true taste, as yet in its earliest infancy; and was poorly compensated by the figure of Judith, executed by Donatello, at the request of the Florentines; and placed at the gate of the palace, as an emblem of the destruction of a tyrant.'

When exhibiting the titles on which the several claimants rested their respective pretensions to the kingdom of Naples, the historian introduces the subsequent very important reflec-

tions, which deserve to be most seriously weighed by all who are concerned in the government of States:

'In the discussion of questions of this nature, there is, however, one circumstance which seems not to have been sufficiently attended to, either by the parties themselves, or those who have examined their claims, and which may explain the mutability of the Neapolitan government better than an appeal to hereditary rights, papal endowments, or feudal customs. The object of dominion is not the bare territory of a country, but the command of the men who possess that country. These, it ought to be recollected, are intelligent beings, capable of being rendered happy or miserable by the virtues or the vices of a sovereign, and acting, if not always under the influence of sober reason, with an impulse resulting from the nature of the situation in which they are placed. Whilst the prince, therefore, retains the affections of his people; whilst he calls forth their energies without rendering them ferocious, and secures their repose without debasing their character; the defects of his title to the sovereignty will disappear in the splendor of his virtues. But when he relinquishes the sceptre of the king, for the scourge of the tyrant, and the ties of attachment are loosened by reiterated instances of rapacity, cruelty, and oppression, the road to innovation is already prepared; the approach of an enemy is no longer considered as a misfortune, but as a deliverance; the dry discussion of abstract rights gives way to more imperious considerations; and the adoption of a new sovereign is not so much the result of versatility, of cowardice, or of treachery, as of that invincible necessity, by which the human race are impelled to relieve themselves from intolerable calamities.'

The same subject is extended to the next chapter, and the author closes his account of the expedition with this representation of its consequences;

'Thus terminated the celebrated expedition of Charles VIII. against the kingdom of Naples; an expedition originating in puerile ambition, conducted with folly and rapacity, and ending in the dissipation of the revenues of his crown, and in the destruction of his army. That he accomplished his object, is the boast of the French historians; but it is easy to perceive, that the successes of Charles VIII. are not to be attributed to his courage or to his abilities, but to the weak and irresolute conduct of his adversaries, the selfish and temporizing policy of the Italian states, and above all, to the odium excited against the house of Arragon, by the cruelties exercised by Ferdinand I. and his son Alfonso, on their subjects. If these advantages could have been countervailed by any misconduct of his own, the defeat of Charles had been certain. Such were his necessities in the commencement of his undertaking, and such the difficulties with which he provided for his soldiery, that he was not only obliged to borrow money at a most exorbitant interest, but even to plunder his friends and allies. The time chosen for his enterprize, could not indeed have been more favourable to his views; for many causes had concurred to disgust the people of Italy with their rulers, and had led them

them to regard the French as their friends and deliverers, and as a nation, on whose honour and good faith they could place the most perfect reliance; but this error was not of long duration; and the cruelty and disorder which distinguished the march of the French army, soon convinced their partisans and admirers, that the expected change was not likely to promote their happiness. The irruption of the French, seemed to be the extinction of all literature in Italy. The example of a weak and licentious monarch, corrupted his followers. An incredible degree of debauchery and prostitution prevailed. The restraints of modesty, the ties of morality, the voice of religion, were all equally disregarded; and the hand of providence almost visibly interfered, to punish by the scourge of a loathsome and destructive malady, those enormities which no other motives could restrain. Shocked at the hideous disease, which now first obtruded itself, like a putrid carcase, into the rosy bowers of pleasure, the Italians and the French recriminated on each other the disgrace of its introduction; and the appellations of *mal de Naples*, and *mal Franceze*, were intended by each of these nations, to remove to the other the infamy of its origin. Of all the consequences incident to the expedition of Charles VIII. against the kingdom of Naples, it is probable that this will be the longest remembered. In other respects, this event seems only to have broken down those barriers, which nature had formed to secure the repose of mankind, and to have opened a wider field for the range of ambition, and the destruction of the human race.'

How hard is frequently the lot of nations, when oppressed and trampled under foot by the government which ought to protect and cherish them; if in their despair they seek deliverance from a foreign power, they invariably aggravate the evils under which they groan! The modern Italians had forgotten the experience of their ancestors, and have only grown equally wise when it is to be feared that their wisdom comes too late.

The attempts of the Medici to reinstate themselves in Florence, the destructive wars of that State with the Pisans, the treacherous and base conduct by which Frederigo king of Naples was deprived of his dominions, and the proceedings of Alexander VI. and his son Cæsar Borgia, furnish the matter of the fifth and sixth chapters, which form the remaining part of the first volume. That hideous monster Cæsar Borgia obtains a vindicator in this amiable author. It is very true that cotemporary writers are apt to exaggerate vices, as well as to magnify virtues; and that their successors, whose business it is at a distant period to review the same transactions, often find it their duty to qualify the representations of the one and the other: but universal opinion at the time, the character of the parties, the particulars of the stories, and their consequences, militate against the plausible objections of Mr. Roscoe, and wholly divest them of weight. This observation we apply to the charge of the murder of his brother

brought against Borgia, and that of incest, in which the whole family was involved. Had not the supreme authority suspected the guilty hand by which the Duke of Gandia fell, it would have been scarcely possible for the murderer to have escaped undiscovered.—In exculpation of the charge of early profligacy, under which Lucretia Borgia has lain, the author urges the exemplary conduct of the Duchess of Ferrara: but it surely is not uncommon for individuals, especially women, when withdrawn from the scenes of dissipation, to change character, and to accommodate themselves to circumstances. Having himself cited such proofs from Burchard of the dissolute course of life pursued by this abandoned woman, it is strange that he should think that there was any excess of which she was incapable. A more singular composition, indeed, than the dissertation on this lady, we have rarely perused. It is, to say the least of it, little worthy of the good sense and ingenuity of the author; and little deserving of a place in a respectable grave performance.

The discrimination of Mr. Roscoe is also here exercised in ascertaining the moral species to which belonged that singular and most strange animal, the pretended prophet Savanarola.

Chapter VII., with which the second volume commences, states the fate of Naples, the decline and inglorious end of Cæsar Borgia, and the strange jealousy to which Ferdinand of Spain resigned himself, and to which his faithful servant the great Captain Gonsalvo fell a victim.

Disgust with the state of affairs at Rome, and the misfortunes of his family, decided the young Cardinal to enlarge his mind by foreign travel. He visited the distant parts of Italy, several cities of Germany, and traversed France: but we learn that, during the latter part of the pontificate of Alexander VI.,

'The cardinal fixed his residence at Rome; where, devoted to a private life, he had the address and good fortune, if not to obtain the favour of that profligate pontiff, at least to escape his resentment. The election of Julius II. to the pontificate opened to him the prospect of brighter days. It is true, Julius was the nephew of Sixtus IV. the inveterate enemy of the Medicean name; but these ancient antipathies had long been converted into attachment and esteem. Under the favour of this pontiff, the cardinal had an opportunity of indulging his natural disposition to the cultivation of polite letters, and the promotion of works of art. His books, though not numerous, were well chosen, and his domestic hours were generally spent in the society of such dignified and learned ecclesiastics, as could at times condescend to lay aside the severity of their order, to discuss the characteristics of generous actions, the obligations of benevolence and affection, the comparative excellencies of the fine arts, or the nature and essence of human happiness. On these subjects the cardinal

never failed to distinguish himself by his urbanity, his acuteness, and his eloquence. In deciding upon the productions of architecture, of painting, and of sculpture, his taste was hereditary, and he was resorted to by artists in every department, as to an infallible judge. With the science of music he was theoretically and practically conversant, and his house more frequently re echoed with the sprightly harmony of concerts, than with the solemn sounds of devotion. Debarred by his profession from the exercises of the camp, he addicted himself with uncommon ardour to the chase, as the best means of preserving his health, and preventing that corpulency to which he was naturally inclined. This amusement he partook of in common with a numerous band of noble associates, of whom he was considered as the leader; nor did he desist from this exercise even after his attainment to the supreme ecclesiastical dignity.'

As it relates so immediately to the subject of the work, we subjoin another extract from the same chapter:

'The good understanding which subsisted between Julius II. and the cardinal de' Medici, was further strengthened by Galeotto della Rovere, the nephew of the pope, with whom the cardinal had contracted a strict friendship. This young man was not less the object of the admiration of the court and people of Rome, than he was the favourite of his uncle. Engaging in his manners, elegant in his person, liberal and magnificent in all his conduct, he well merited the high honours bestowed upon him by the pope, who immediately on his elevation, transferred to his nephew the cardinal's hat which he had himself worn, and on the death of Ascanio Sforza nominated him vice-chancellor of the holy see. Such was the effect produced by the conciliatory manners of the cardinal de' Medici on his young friend, who, from the advanced age of his uncle, did not conceive that he would long enjoy the pontificate, that Galeotto is said to have promised the cardinal, who had not yet attained his thirtieth year, that he should succeed to that high dignity; alledging that it was an office more proper for a man in the prime and vigour of life, than for one already exhausted by labour, and declining into years. This observation was not, however, applicable to the circumstances by which it was occasioned; for whilst Julius maintained his own dignity, and enforced the claims of the church, during an interval of ten years, with an unexampled degree of activity and perseverance, Galeotto himself fell, in the prime of youth, a sacrifice to the effects of a violent fever, which in a few days consigned him to the grave. The sumptuous parade of his funeral afforded no consolation for his loss to the cardinal de' Medici, who had assiduously attended him in his last moments, and performed towards him all the duties of religion and affection. Deprived of his friend in the ardour of youth, whilst the happiness of the present was increased by the prospect of the future, he long remained inconsolable, and when time had softened his sorrow, the name of Galeotto was never adverted to, even in his most cheerful moments, without exciting the visible symptoms of affectionate remembrance.

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'In the measures adopted by the cardinal, for effecting his restoration to his native place, he was now no longer in danger of being counteracted by the ill-timed efforts and impetuosity of his brother. Although this was the constant object of his solicitude, and he was now considered as the chief of his family, he shewed no disposition to interfere in the concerns, or to disturb the repose of the Florentines, who, under the dictatorship of Pietro Soderini, continued to labour with the difficulties of their government, and the obstinacy of their rebellious subjects, and to maintain at least the name of a republic. It was not, however, without frequent opposition and mortification that Soderini exercised his authority. Many of the citizens of the first rank, still attached to the cause of the Medici, continued to harass him in all his designs, and to oppose all his measures; but the industry, patience, and perseverance of the *gonfaloniere*, gradually blunted their resentment and weakened their efforts, whilst the various and unsuccessful attempts of Piero de' Medici to regain the city of Florence by force, had increased the aversion of his countrymen, and placed an insuperable bar to his return. In these expeditions the resources of the family were exhausted, insomuch, that the cardinal found no small difficulty in supporting the dignity of his rank, to which his ecclesiastical revenues were inadequate. He struggled, however, with these humiliating circumstances to the utmost of his power; but the liberality of his disposition too often exceeded the extent of his finances; and a splendid entertainment was at times deranged by the want of some essential, but unattainable article. Even the silver utensils of his table were occasionally pledged for the purpose of procuring that feast, of which they ought to have been the chief ornaments. That these circumstances occasioned him considerable anxiety cannot be doubted; for whilst on the one hand he was unwilling to detract from that character of liberality and munificence which was suitable to his rank, and to the high expectations which he still continued to entertain; on the other hand he dreaded the disgrace of being wanting in the strict discharge of his pecuniary engagements. He carefully, however, avoided giving, even in the lowest ebb of his fortunes, the slightest indications of despondency. His temper was cheerful, his conversation animated, and his appearance and manners betrayed not the least symptom of his domestic embarrassments, for the relief of which he seemed to depend upon a timely and miraculous supply. Nor was he in general disappointed in his hopes; for the same good fortune which prepared the way to his highest honours, attended him in his greatest difficulties, and enabled him to extricate himself from them with admirable dexterity and irreproachable honour. To the remonstrances of his more prudent friends, who were fearful that his liberality would at length involve him in actual distress, he was accustomed to reply, as if with a presage of his future destiny, that great men were the work of providence, and that nothing could be wanting to them, if they were not wanting to themselves.'

In recording the great public events of the time, Guicciardini is the present author's principal guide, and he cannot have a better.

a better. The ninth chapter exhibits to view the league of Cambray, and the events by which it was followed, adverts to the council of Pisa, and instances the versatility of Julius II.; who deserted the confederacy against Venice, and opposed it by a counter league, termed the holy. The reader will recollect the bloody battle to which this conduct led, that of Ravenna, and the fall of the French commander, the brave de Foix. In the midst of the calamities of their country, fortune again smiled on the house of Medici; and the career which led to the highest elevation now opened before the Cardinal:

'The conduct of the Florentine republic, in permitting the pretended council of the church to assemble in Pisa, had subjected the magistrates, and particularly the *gonfaloniere*, Pietro Soderini, to the resentment of the pontiff, who resolved to avail himself of the first opportunity of punishing, with due severity, so heinous an offence. The most effectual method with occurred to him for this purpose, as well as to secure the city in future to his own interests, was to restore the family of Medici, to their former authority in that place. During all the vexation and dangers which the pontiff had experienced, the cardinal de' Medici had adhered to him with constant fidelity, and had obtained his confidence in an eminent degree. In selecting at this important crisis, a fit person to superintend the papal army, and to direct the operations of the war, the choice of the pontiff fell on the cardinal, who was invested with the supreme command, under the title of legate of Bologna. At the same time, in order to stimulate the exertions of the cardinal, and to punish the Florentines for the part which they had taken, it was understood, that on the expulsion of the French from Bologna, and other ports of the dominions of the church, the cardinal should be allowed to make use of the forces under his command for the re-establishment of his authority in Florence.'

The Cardinal's conduct in this new sphere, and his captivity and escape, are matters of general history; and we cannot discover that any new light is thrown on them by Mr. Roscoe.

Chapter IX. presents to us an account of the restoration of the Medici to their former ascendancy in Florence, through the interposition of the Spanish arms, aided by the indecision of the Gonfaloniere Soderini. This revolution brought the Cardinal to his native city; and while he was engaged in the concerns of his family at that place, he received intelligence of the death of Pope Julius II.—Mr. Roscoe's recapitulation of the achievements and views of that Pontiff, and his sketch of his character, are favourable specimens of the style and manner which characterize these volumes:

'Notwithstanding the ample successes, which in the latter part of his life, had attended the arms and crowned the designs of Julius II. they were by no means commensurate with the reach of his ambition

bition and the extent of his views. Not satisfied with having acted the principal part in the expulsion of the French from Italy, he had determined to free that country from all foreign powers, and to model its governments at his own pleasure. Hence he certainly meditated hostilities against his ally, the king of Spain, whose sovereignty of Naples was incompatible with his designs. *If heaven be willing*, said he, shaking the staff which supported his aged steps, and trembling with rage, *the Neapolitans shall in a short time have another master*. The late proceedings of the Medici in Florence had, however, given him no slight offence; inasmuch as they had not required his participation or concurrence in the political arrangements of the place, but had secured to themselves a supreme and independent authority. Against the duke of Ferrara his resentment was unextinguishable, and he had already arrayed a powerful army to attack his dominions; nor is it improbable that he meant to have conferred on his nephew, the duke of Urbino, such an independent sovereignty in Italy, as would have ranked him among the first powers in Europe. But whilst Julius was immersed in these meditations, he forgot the uncertain tenure by which he held his own existence, and a few days sickness terminated his extensive projects, and laid him to rest. It has been asserted, that he died phrenetic, exclaiming, *Out of Italy, French! Out, Alfonso of Este!* but Muratori conjectures that he retained his reason to the last; and it is indeed highly probable that those expressions, which were considered as the proofs of delirium, were nothing more than the effects of *The ruling passion, strong in death*.

'The foregoing pages have afforded us sufficient opportunities of appreciating the character and talents of Julius II. Bold, enterprizing, ambitious, and indefatigable, he neither sought repose himself, nor allowed it to be enjoyed by others. In searching for a vicar of Christ upon earth, it would indeed have been difficult to have found a person, whose conduct and temper were more directly opposed to the mild spirit of Christianity, and the example of its founder; but this was not the test by which the conclave judged of the qualifications of a pontiff, who was now no longer expected to seclude himself from the cares of the world, in order to attend to the spiritual concerns of his flock. Julius II. is therefore not to be judged by a rule of conduct, which he neither proposed to himself, nor was expected to conform to by others. His vigorous and active mind corresponded with the restless spirit of the times, and his good fortune raised him to an eminence from which he looked down on the proudest sovereigns of the earth. His ambition was not, however, the passion of a groveling mind, nor were the advantages which he sought to attain of a temporary or personal nature. To establish the authority of the holy see throughout Europe, to recover the dominions of the church, to expel all foreign powers, or as they were then called, barbarians, from Italy, and to restore that country to the dominion of its native princes, were the vast objects of his comprehensive mind. These objects he lived in a great degree to accomplish; and it may well be doubted whether, if he had entered on his career at an earlier period of life, he would not have carried his designs

signs into full effect. In suppressing the vicars of the church, and uniting their territories to the holy see, he completed what Alexander VI. had begun; but without incurring the odium which has, on that account, been attached to the memory of his predecessor. The Italian historians have not, however, shewn themselves favourable to his fame; and Guicciardini asserts, "That if he be considered as a great man, it is only by those, who having forgotten the right meaning of words, and confused the distinctions of a sound judgment, conceive that it is rather the office of a supreme pontiff to add to the dominion of the apostolic see by Christian arms and Christian blood, than to afford the example of a well regulated life."

'That the martial character of this pontiff, who frequently led his troops in person, tended to diminish the reverence due to the holy see, and like the enormities of Alexander VI. prepared the way for the reformation which speedily followed, has been conjectured by many writers; and seems indeed highly probable. In his private life he is said to have been addicted to the inordinate use of wine, which may account for some of the eccentricities recorded of him; but it is admitted by all writers, that he did not, like too many pontiffs, disgrace his pontificate by dissipating the revenues and domains of the church among his relations and favourites. With the exception only of the city of Pesaro, the investiture of which, with the consent of the college of cardinals, was granted to his nephew, the duke of Urbino, the conquests of Julius were annexed to the dominions of the church, and he withstood the entreaties of his daughter Felice, the wife of M. Antonio Colonna, who solicited the hat of a cardinal for Guido da Montefeltro, the half brother of her husband; having openly declared to her that he did not think him deserving of that rank. Julius was the first pontiff who revived the custom which had long been discontinued by his predecessors of suffering his beard to extend to its natural length, which he is supposed to have done in order to give additional respect and dignity to his appearance; but which may, with more probability, be attributed to his impatient temper and incessant occupations, which left him no time for the usual attentions to his person.'

Had Julius been a more temperate prince, he would have been justly deemed the greatest public character of his time; since no sovereign better understood his interest, none pursued it with more determination, and no man with means so slender produced effects so considerable: it appears, also, that he warmly encouraged letters, and patronized learned men.

The tenth chapter exhibits the subject of these volumes at the head of Christendom. The behaviour of the Cardinal de' Medici, on the occasion of his elevation to the pontificate, is highly extolled; and certainly the first acts of the new Pope, who assumed the name of Leo X., display great circumspection in conduct, and great attention to decorum in the discharge of his august functions. When he proceeded to the Lateran church, in order to be invested with the insignia of his

his office, and to take possession of his dominions, his taste for magnificence was openly displayed: while his appointment of Sadoleti and Bembo, to be his secretaries, was considered as a proof of his predilection in favour of learned men. He employed his utmost exertions to avert from Italy the storm which threatened it from the invasion of Louis XII.; and on the signal discomfiture of the arms of that monarch at Novara, as well as on occasion of the other disasters which crowded on him, the Pope endeavoured to moderate the resentment of his enemies, and to effect a reconciliation between them and him. At this period, the flames of war over-ran nearly the whole of Europe; while the sovereign pontiff, exercising the duties of the common father of christian princes, made every exertion in his power to allay and extinguish them. We find him creating new cardinals; and in the list appears the name of his cousin Giulio, afterward Clement VII. He also regulated the government of Florence, and entrusted it to Lorenzo his nephew.—The moderation of Leo is strikingly exhibited in the pardon which, in opposition to very powerful remonstrances, he extended to the refractory cardinals, the schismatic fathers of the council of Pisa. That nothing might be wanting to complete the splendour of the commencement of the new Pontiff, Louis XII. sued for absolution from the sentence of excommunication passed on him by Julius XII., which he obtained on submitting to the humiliating terms which were prescribed to him.

Much credit is allowed to Leo by his biographer, on the score of his having prevented the execution of a projected league between Louis XII., Ferdinand, and Maximilian. Mr. Roscoe is also of opinion that his holiness was intitled to great praise for effecting a peace between Louis and Henry VIII.; a peace in which, he contends, the interests of the latter were well consulted, whatever were the motives by which the negotiator of it (Wolsey) might have been actuated. The author admits that, at this period, the Pope was devising bold plans for the aggrandizement of his house; and that he aimed at nothing less than the establishment of his brother Giuliano on the throne of Naples, with the addition of Urbino and Ferrara to Florence, which was to be a provision for his nephew Lorenzo. He also states that, in order to realize these brilliant schemes, Leo sought the alliance of the king of France; and it is supposed that these dreams of a disordered imagination formed the heads of a treaty, which he at this time submitted to that monarch. Because Louis took a longer time than the impatience of his holiness would allow to be necessary before he returned an answer, the Pope concluded that his proposals were rejected,

rejected, and renewed his treaties of mutual defence with the Emperor and the king of Spain: when on the day after the signing of these compacts, he received the ratification of his proposals by the king of France. We have here a characteristic trait of Leo as a temporal sovereign: since we find him, shortly after he had lost sight of these splendid projects, exerting all his influence to prevent the Duchy of Milan from falling into the hands of the French.

Every reader of history is acquainted with the manner in which the infidelity of Maximilian, and the jealousies between the Spanish and Papal troops, occasioned Milan to become the easy prey of Francis I. The conduct of the Pope was marked by uncertainty and hesitation; and he seemed more anxious to keep open the door to reconciliation with France, than to attain the objects of the league of which he was the prime mover. His behaviour was throughout pusillanimous, and his fears induced him to agree to a hard treaty with Francis. This decision led to an interview between the two potentates, at which the pragmatic sanction was abolished, and the celebrated *concordat* was settled.

Commendation is bestowed on the Pope for counteracting the treaty of Noyon, by a league between the Emperor, the kings of England and Spain, and his holiness. The peace of Europe was established at this time, the Emperor and Venice came to an understanding, Francis and the Swiss were reconciled, and the treaty called the *perpetual alliance* was settled at Friburgh. While these great transactions were carrying on, the Pope, by arms and negociations, subjugated the Duchy of Urbino, in which he established his nephew Lorenzo. Having suppressed a most dangerous conspiracy among his Cardinals against his life, he added thirty-one new members to the college, and thus ensured tranquillity and security during the remainder of his reign.

The victories of Sultan Selim, in Persia and Egypt, now excited considerable alarm in this quarter of the globe; and we find the Pope, as the first potentate of Christendom, taking measures to prepare a barrier against the inroads which it was apprehended this powerful enemy of the cross would attempt. The proposals of his holiness were respectfully received by the leading christian powers, and promises were liberally made to him that they would zealously co-operate for the common defence.—He now availed himself of this period of tranquillity in Europe to aggrandize the holy see, by adding to it several of the neighbouring territories. Treachery of the blackest dye, and stratagems of the most dishonourable kind, seemed to cost him little effort, provided that he could attain his object. His

behaviour

behaviour in this respect shews that he disregarded fame and reputation; and that, if he fell short of the worst of his predecessors in unjust aggressions, it was because he was less able and active, and more pusillanimous.

We have now gone over the civil history which these volumes embrace; and we would only observe here, that, considering the object of the work, the admirable histories of the period which already exist, and the comparative little influence which this celebrated pontiff appears to have possessed in the civil affairs of the time, a more brief relation of them might have sufficed. In the remaining part of this article, we shall touch briefly on the author's narrative of the ecclesiastical transactions which render this period so remarkable, in order to enter more at large into his account of the progress of letters in the course of it, which must have been the leading object in his great undertaking, and certainly was that to which the expectations of the public were directed; we shall then advert to his portrait of Leo, observe on his general plan and his style of narration, and conclude with a summary of our sentiments on the pretensions of the work. We abstain from all such remarks till our readers are in possession of the whole outline of the performance.

[*To be continued.*] Jo.

ART. II. *A complete Collection of Tables for Navigation and Nautical Astronomy;* with simple, concise, and accurate Methods for all the Calculations useful at Sea: particularly for deducing the Longitude from Lunar Distances, and the Latitude from two Altitudes of the Sun and the Interval of Time between the Observations. By Joseph de Mendoza Rios, Esq. F.R.S. 4to. pp. 717. 1l. 1s. Boards. Faulder, &c. 1806.

IT is known, and it would be a species of ingratitude not to recollect the illustrious fact, that Dr. Maskelyne, the Astronomer Royal, published a set of Requisite Tables with the first nautical Ephemeris, viz. that of 1767: the design of these two works being to enable the mariner, expeditiously and with a great degree of precision, to find the latitude and longitude, after he had made the necessary observations with an Hadley's quadrant or sextant. Ten thousand copies formed the first edition of the Requisite Tables, which were sold off in a few years; and in consequence a new impression, much altered and improved, appeared in 1781.

The chief and important object, contemplated by the Astronomer Royal in the publication of the Ephemeris and Tables, was the determination of the longitude by means of the Moon's distance

distance from the Sun, or from a fixed Star. This distance can be measured by a quadrant: but, from the effects of Parallax and Refraction, the observed distance is only apparent, and not true. It was necessary, then, to possess an easy method of determining the true from the apparent; or of clearing, according to the usual annunciation of the problem, the moon's distance from the effects of parallax and refraction. With regard to its analytical solution, this problem is not difficult: let a, A be the apparent and true altitudes of the moon, and h, H, the apparent and true altitudes of the sun or star: let d be the observed and D the true distance; then, by the solution of a spherical triangle, the finding the value of an included angle at once gives us this equation:

$$(1)\quad \frac{\cos. D - \sin. A. \sin. H}{\cos. A. \cos. H} = \frac{\cos. d - \sin. a. \sin. h}{\cos. a. \cos. h};$$

and from it, the value of cos. D is easily expressed, or the problem is analytically solved: but the solution, which could be immediately deduced from the above equation, would not be conveniently adapted to arithmetical operations. The form under which Mr. Dunthorne expressed the value of cos. D was by no means commodious. In the arithmetical operation, it was necessary to employ logarithms and natural cosines; and on this account Dr. Maskelyne altered the form, and enabled the computist to deduce the distance by means of logarithms alone. The same ingenious author, in his preface to Taylor's Logarithms, gave a new rule for clearing the moon's distance, founded on a formula easily deduced from the equation (1) which we have already exhibited: the formula is this;

$$\sin. \frac{D}{2} = \sin. \tfrac{1}{2}(A-H). \sec. \theta$$

where θ is an angle, such that tan. $\theta =$

$$\frac{1}{\sin. \frac{1}{2}(A-H)} \sqrt{\left\{ \frac{\left(\sin. \tfrac{1}{2} d + (a-h)\right)\left(\sin. \tfrac{1}{2} d - (a-h)\right) \cos. A \cos. H}{\cos. a. \cos. b} \right\}}$$

Similar to this, M. Borda deduced a formula, perhaps rather preferable, viz.

$$\sin. \frac{D}{2} = \cos. \left(\frac{A+H}{2}\right). \cos. \theta$$

where θ is an angle, such that sin. $\theta =$

$$\frac{1}{\cos. \frac{A+H}{2}} \sqrt{\left(\cos. \frac{d+a+h}{2} \cos. \frac{d-(a+h)}{2}\right)} \sqrt{\frac{\cos. A. \cos. H}{\cos. a. \cos. b}}$$

The application of logarithms to either of these two last formulæ is immediate and easy; and there would be an end of

the investigation, if we merely required a direct and exact method: but something more is necessary for the mariner, whose education and employments exact a mode which shall be easy and compendious. Now it is not to be dissembled that the methods of Maskelyne and Borda are rather tedious: they require several logarithms to be taken out; and every one who has used Taylor's logarithms has experienced that logarithmic sines, &c. are not to be taken from them very expeditiously. For these reasons, other formulæ and methods of computing the true distance have been suggested; and since, in such an inquiry, practical utility was the principal object, the Academy of Paris proposed the problem under the following terms: "To find, for reducing the apparent distance of two stars to the true distance, a sure and rigorous method, and which in practice requires only simple calculations within the reach of the greater number of navigators." To solve the problem with these conditions, M. Kraft, in the *Nova Acta Petropolitana*, Tom. VII. p. 365, published a memoir, in which he put the reduced distance under this form:

$$\text{vers. sin. } D = \text{v. sin. } (d+\omega) + \text{v. sin. } (d-\omega) + \text{v. sin. } (A-H) - \text{v. sin. } (a-b+\omega) - \text{v. sin. } (a-b-\omega)$$

$$\text{in which, cos. } \omega = 0.5001343 \cdot \frac{\text{cos. } A}{\text{cos. } a};$$

and after the caculation of ω, the true distance by this formula would result from arithmetically combining five versed sines. After the deduction of his formula, M. Kraft gives a slight specimen of a table constructed for ω, subjoins an instance in which he computes his five arguments, and then by a table of versed sines calculates the distance. The advantages of this method are next stated; and it is clear that it is short, and that its use demands in the mariner no knowlege of logarithms nor of trigonometry. In the latter part of the memoir, two other formulæ are added.

It was probably this memoir of M. Kraft, that directed M. Mendoza de Rios, the author of the present Tables, to the invention of a similar formula, and to the construction of Tables derived from it. We have used the term probably, because, not being apprized of what M. Mendoza has written in the Spanish language, we conceive that the *Connoissance des Temps* for 1796 contains his first published notions on the problem of the moon's distance. In that ephemeris, the author lays down a formula which is similar, as we have just said, to that of M. Kraft; viz.

$$(5)\ \text{v. sin. } D = \text{v. sin. } (d+\omega) + \text{v. sin. } \{d-\omega\} + \text{v. sin. } (a+b+\omega) + \text{v. sin.}$$

$$+ \text{v. sin.}\left\{(a+b)-\omega\right\} + \text{v. sin.}\left\{180-(A-H)\right\}-4$$

in which form, ω is such that $2.\cos.\omega = \frac{\cos.A\cos.H}{\cos.a\cos.b}$; the same substitution, in fact, as that of M. Kraft, since for all altitudes of the Sun or a fixed Star $\frac{\cos.H}{2.\cos.b}$ may be taken equal to 0.5001343, without sensible error. M. Mendoza, in the Ephemeris which we have mentioned, illustrated the use of this form by examples; and he added a specimen of tables such as it would be proper to construct: but the great practical amelioration of his method is contained in the volume before us. According to the formula (5), in order to find v. sin. D, it would be necessary to take out five versed sines: but the author has constructed his tables in such a manner, that the sum of the versed sines of $(d+\omega)$ and $(d-\omega)$, and the sum of the versed sines of $(a+b+\omega)$ and $(a+b-\omega)$, can be taken out at one operation; so that, instead of five, the calculator takes out only three numbers. The table, by means of which this great abridgment of computation is effected, is the 11th of the present volume, and occupies 300 pages. It is most admirably constructed; and its use is so easily apprehended that, after a little practice, we are persuaded, we could compute the true distance in a very few minutes. The other parts of the process for finding the longitude are common to M. Mendoza's method and others.

As far, then, as we may be guided by the dates of the memoirs, to M. Kraft belongs the merit of having deduced the formula expressed in terms of versed sines, and of proposing that tables should be constructed on them: but sufficient praise and recompense can scarcely be awarded to M. Mendoza for the care, labour, and ingenuity by which his 11th table has been constructed.—One of the objections against the use of Dr. Maskelyne's form, or that of Borda, is that the computation is rendered tedious by the operation of taking out several *Logarithmic Trigonometrical* lines, and of adding up many figures: if Taylor's Tables are used, the sines, &c. are expressed by seven decimals. To those Mathematicians, therefore, who understood the principles of the inquiry, and who felt the inconvenience of long arithmetical operations, a question was naturally suggested;—instead of finding the corrected distance, may it not be more convenient to investigate the *correction of the distance?* The problem has accordingly been attempted, and solved, by M. Delambre and by M. Legendre: the solution of this last mentioned mathematician we have not seen; and if we may be permitted to venture an opinion, that of De-

lambre does not possess such advantages in the points of facility and conciseness, that it ought practically to be adopted. Indeed, the learned author himself, after having balanced all circumstances, allows that M. Mendoza's method is more easy and compendious than either his own or that of Legendre. For the grounds of this opinion, and for a comparison between the several methods, we refer our readers to the *Connoissance des Temps* for 1804.

At the termination of a paper inserted by M. Mendoza in the Philosophical Transactions for 1797, is an extract of a letter from Mr. Henry Cavendish; in which that learned gentleman seems to say that he prefers the method of finding the correction of the distance to the methods by which the corrected distance is obtained; and accordingly that he had instituted a calculation, and caused tables to be founded on it, intended for insertion in M. Mendoza's new work. Are such tables in the volume before us? As M. Mendoza has said nothing concerning the principle of the construction of his tables, we have on that subject been left to conjecture: is not the eleventh table constructed by the aid of the formula given by the author in the *Connoissance des Temps?*

The expression for the correction of the distance is a problem of much greater difficulty than, in the first moments of consideration, it appears to be. Let x be that correction; then $D=d+x$; and we have from equation (1), given in a former page, the equation

$$\text{cos. } (d+x)=\text{cos. } d. \frac{\text{cos. } A \text{ cos. } H}{\text{cos. } a \text{ cos. } b} - \text{tan. } a. \text{ tan. } b \text{ cos. } A. \text{ cos. } H + \text{sin. } A \text{ sin. } H - f.$$

It is required to deduce x approximately from this equation; and we propose it to those of our mathematical readers who are fond of such exercises, for their understanding and their art. We shall in this part speak of the table constructed, among its other uses, for the remaining process by which the longitude is found. The eleventh table enables us to clear the distance; and the distance being obtained, we find the time at Greenwich, making use of the Nautical Almanac and the Table of Proportional Logarithms, which is the 15th in the present collection, and which gives one more figure than the similar table printed in the *Requisite Tables*. What remains in the process is to find the time; and for its analytical solution are given the latitude, declination of sun or star, and the altitude. Let τ represent the hour angle;

$$\text{then cos. } \tau = \frac{\text{sin. } A - \text{cos. } (90^\circ - l) \text{ cos. } (90 - d)}{\text{sin. } (90^\circ - l) \text{ sin. } (90 - d)}$$

(*A* being

(*A* being the altitude, *l* the latitude, *d* the declination.) Let 90—$d=p$; then 1—cos. τ, or v. sin. τ, or 2. $(\text{sin. } \frac{\tau}{2})^2 =$

$$= \frac{\text{cos. } l \text{ sin. } p + \text{sin. } l \text{ cos. } p - \text{sin. } A}{\text{cos. } l \text{ sin. } p}$$

$$= \frac{\text{sin. } (p + l) - \text{sin. } A}{\text{cos. } l \text{ sin. } p}$$

$$= 2 \text{ cos. } \left(\frac{p+l+A}{2}\right) \cdot \text{ sin. } \left(\frac{p+l-A}{2}\right) \text{ sec. } l \text{ cosec. } p$$

which form admits immediately the application of logarithms. M. Mendoza's rule is deduced from the preceding: but, in order to shorten the computation, he omits the addition of the logarithm of 2, and finds the logarithm of *half* the versed sine of τ: he calls it, however, the logarithmic versed. Against this misapplication of terms, the ingenious author has not given sufficient caution; and for want of it, we were a long time harassed and perplexed by the rule given in his 9th problem. That rule, according to the common meaning of terms, we were persuaded, was wrong: but his tables gave right results according to such rule; and we were at last accidentally relieved by the light of a remark which broke out from the dungeon of a little note in page 8. The practical working of the rule is however extremely easy, by means of the 17th table, consisting of logarithmic sines, cosines, secants, cosecants, versed, coversed, suversed, and sucoversed. The arguments of this table are two, one in parts of the circle up to 180°; the other in time, up to 6 hours. The table consists of 90 pages, and is in our opinion most valuable. The method of finding the apparent time, according to the rule (p. 25) of the Requisite Tables, is by means of natural sines: but we deem it much inferior to the method of which we have been just speaking.

We have mentioned certain terms, suversed, sucoversed, &c. which are novel in mathematical language; and M. Mendoza is, we believe, the author of the "*callida junctura.*"—We subjoin the values of these lines, from which our readers may easily discern the reason for their denomination. Suppose the radius 1

then versin. $A = 1 - \text{cos. } A$
suvers. $A = 1 + \text{cos. } A$
covers. $A. = 1 - \text{sin. } A$
sucovers. $A = 1 + \text{sin. } A$

Hence equations are easily instituted between these quantities:

thus covers. $(90 - A) = 1 - \text{sin. } (90 - A)$
$= 1 - \text{cos. } A = \text{versin. } A$

or coversed of complement of an angle = versed of angle; and similarly sucovers. $(90 - A) =$ suvers. A.

We have spoken of the problem of the longitude. The determination of the latitude, if we could always observe the sun's meridian altitude, would be an easy problem: but clouds very frequently prevent this observation. The mariner, therefore, requires other methods of determining the latitude; and the one which is best adapted, and has been most improved, is that which gives the latitude from two altitudes of the sun, and from the interval of time elapsed between the observations. M. Mendoza's rule and tables are founded on the direct solution of this problem; in which solution it is necessary, or rather it is customary, to find four quantities by four independent processes. The analytic art has not hitherto afforded a solution by which the latitude is exhibited under one formula. In the first of these processes, is found a side (S) dependent on the complement of the declination and on the interval of time: this side is found arithmetically, that is, in specific instances, by table 21, and is easily obtained by that table. In the second process is found an angle (α) dependent also on the declination and interval of time, but expressed mathematically by means of the abovementioned side and interval. This angle (or, if we mistake not, in M. Mendoza's rule, the complement of this angle,) is found by table 22d: the pages of which, for the sake of convenience, are printed opposite to the corresponding pages of table 21. In the third process, it is necessary to find an angle (B), which is easily had from this form; (a, a' meaning greatest and least altitudes;)

$$\frac{\text{v. sin.}B}{2} = \frac{\cos.(S+a+a')}{2} \sin.\left(\frac{S+a+a'}{2} - a\right) \text{cosec.}S. \sec.a'$$

This versed sine is easily had by means of table 17, already mentioned. It is no small recommendation of that table, that it enables us to perform *Logarithmic Trigonometrical* Operations by addition solely.—By the remaining part of the process, the latitude is found: thus if λ be the latitude, and d the declination, $(1 + \sin.\lambda) = \text{suver.}(d - a')$

$$\left\{1 - \frac{\frac{1}{2}\left(\text{suvers.}(B+\theta)\right)\cos.a'.\cos.d}{\frac{1}{2}\text{ suvers.}(d-a')}\right\}$$

or, if we put $\dfrac{\text{suvers.}(B+\theta)\cos.a'\cos.d}{\text{suvers.}(d-a')} = \dfrac{\text{versin.}\Phi}{2}$

$$1 + \sin.\lambda = \text{suvers.}(d-a')\left\{1 - \frac{\text{versin.}\Phi}{2}\right\}$$

$$= \text{suvers.}(d-a')\left\{\text{suvers.}\frac{\Phi}{2}\right\}$$

and

and .·. log. covers. λ = log. suvers. $(d-a')$ + log. suvers. $\frac{\varphi}{2}$

On these forms, as it appears to us, the rule is founded which is given by the author in page 31, problem 8. The rule, however, for finding the latitude, cannot under every circumstance be applied; and the author, in his remarks, lays down certain limitations, and promises to speak farther on this subject in a future work.

More instances should, in our opinion, have been adduced to shew the use and application of the tables 21 and 22.

The rule for finding the latitude (such is the necessity of the case,) is rather long and complicated: at first sight, it appears very formidable: but, as in other instances, a little acquaintance with it causes its terrors to disappear, and after a short time we were surprised to find how expeditiously we could resolve cases. It is proper, however, to mention that in those cases which we have resolved by the present tables, the latitude was not obtained within those limits of exactness which the author thinks are attainable by his tables. Finding that the latitude did not come out exactly right from several of our own observations, we distrusted them, and applied the tables to instances given in the Requisite Tables, Nautical Almanac, &c. In the example of the Requisite Tables, p. 17, the latitude we found to be 39° 28′ which agrees with the latitude determined by the common rule of approximation.—In the example, p. 10. of Nautical Almanac for 1800, where the greater altitude is 50° 1′, the less altitude is 41° 33′, and the interval between the observations is $1^h\ 30^m$, we determine the latitude by the present tables to be 52° 6′ 15″: whereas Mr. Brinkley makes the latitude 52° 10′.—In an instance taken from the Philosophical Transactions for 1799, p. 115, where, the two altitudes are 20° 12′ and 20° 1′ and the interval $20^m\ 4^s$, we determine the latitude to be 52° 11′ 10″: whereas it is 52° 12′ 42″.

We consider it as our duty thus fairly to state our doubts concerning the first determination of the latitude with no greater error than that of one minute; and we also give the instances in which the operations were performed. Yet, before we dismiss this part, we must add, without any affectation of modesty, that we do not pledge ourselves to have committed no oversight; since some trifling misconception of the rules, or some slight mistake in the use and application of the tables, may have occasioned that deviation from the right results which has already been mentioned.

The problem of the determination of the latitude from two observed altitudes and the time between the observations has

engaged the attention of several eminent mathematicians; and it is more difficult than the determination of the true distance of the moon from a star. M. Mendoza's rule is founded on the direct solution: but mariners have hitherto adopted an approximate method; employing, as an element of calculation, the latitude by account. An approximate method called Douwe's method, is given in the Requisite Tables: but it is sometimes tedious, requiring a repetition of the operation, and, when repeated, not always leading to right conclusions. On this account, Mr. Brinkley, an astronomer at Dublin, invented a supplementary process of computation; by which the latitude, once found by Douwe's method, might be conveniently corrected; and this process, with its demonstration and tables, was published in the year 1793, when the Nautical Almanac for 1797 appeared. Mr. Brinkley, we apprehend, was the author of this method; for, although a memoir on the same subject, containing the same formula from which the rules are deduced, was published as early as the year 1791 in the *Connoissance des Temps* for 1793, (page 289) by M. Mendoza, yet, from a passage in that memoir, the priority of invention seems in some degree awarded to the Dublin Astronomer *. At this distance of time, however, the circumstance is involved in some perplexity. If Mr. Brinkley merely calculated the values of $\frac{\tan. d}{\tan. l}$, $\frac{\cos. \frac{t}{2}}{\cos. M} - 1$, he ought not to have published the method as his own in the Nautical Almanac. On the other hand, if a copy of the method was in M. Mendoza's possession before the publication of the *Connoissance des Temps*, then is Mr. B. in fact the author of the method, and M. Mendoza has not acted fairly in rendering him so slight, and, which is worse, so ambiguous an *homage*.

The two methods for correcting Douwe's rule are in fact the same. If L be the *true* and l the *computed* latitude, then, according to Mr. Brinkley †,

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* The passage is this: "*L'expression ci dessus est assez commode; mais pour en faciliter l'usage, on pourra substituer deux tables qui donnent les valeurs de* $\frac{\cos \frac{1}{2} t}{\cos M} - 1$ *et de* tan. *d* cotan. *l. M. Brinkley, Astronome de l'Université de Dublin, les ayant calculées, a eu la bonté de m'en donner une copie, et c'est avec plaisir que je lui rends cet hommage.*"

† We have observed two errors in the Nautical Almanac; p. 14. *merid. Altitude* is put for *Zenith distance*, and p. 15. l. 9. *cos. L.* is put for *sin. L.*

$l' =$

$$l' = \frac{L'}{1 \pm \text{tan. } d \text{ cot. } L} \left\{ \text{tan. } M \text{ sin. } \mathcal{T} - \text{vers. } \mathcal{T} \right\}$$

$\mathcal{T}$ being the time nearest to noon and M the middle time.

According to M. Mendoza, (p. 294, *Connoissance des Temps, pour l'Année* 1793.)

$$dL = dl \left\{ \frac{\frac{\cos. \frac{1}{2} t}{\cos. M} - 1}{1 \pm \text{tan. } d \text{ cotan. } l} \right\} t \text{ interval of time}$$

but $\mathcal{T} + \frac{t}{2} = M$

$$\therefore \cos. \frac{t}{2} = \cos. M \cos. \mathcal{T} + \sin. M \sin. \mathcal{T}$$

consequently $\frac{\cos. \frac{t}{2}}{\cos. M} - 1 = \text{tan. } M \text{ sin. } \mathcal{T} - \text{vers. } \mathcal{T}$

The two expressions, then, are precisely the same; since, in this latter case, dL answers to l' in the former, and dl to L'

Mr. Brinkley and M. Mendoza have both resolved the problem of Douwe by means of the orthographic projection of the circle: but this is by no means necessary; and in fact, all things considered, the resolution is not so simple as by the ordinary and obvious processes of spherical trigonometry. The simplification of problems, by the adventitious aid of new principles and new branches of science, is generally delusive.

M. Kraft, who, as we have already mentioned, solved the problem of clearing the moon's distance from the effects of parallax and refraction, has also given in the Petersburgh Acts for 1795, p. 353. a short memoir on the determination of the latitude from two altitudes and the elapsed time: but his solution of the problem appears to us to have no advantages over the common and direct solution.

In our account of this volume, we have hitherto dwelt only on the two principal problems of Nautical Astronomy; and indeed the other problems which are here solved by rule, and for which tables are constructed, are of inferior concern. In page 26, problem 3, which proposes to determine the Azimuth, it appears to us that *versed sine* is printed instead of *suversed:* for if α be the Azimuth, π the polar distance, λ the latitude, and a the altitude, then

$$\text{cos. } \alpha = \frac{\text{cos. } \pi - \text{sin. } \lambda \text{ sin. } a}{\text{cos. } \lambda \text{ cos. } a}$$

$$\therefore 1 + \text{cos. } \alpha = \frac{\text{cos. } (\lambda + a) + \text{cos. } \pi}{\text{cos. } \lambda \text{ cos. } a} = 2 \text{cos.} \frac{\frac{\lambda + a + \pi}{2} . \text{cos.} \frac{\lambda + a + \pi}{2} - \pi}{\text{cos. } \lambda \text{ cos. } a}$$

or

$$\text{or } \frac{\text{suvers. } \alpha}{2} = \cos.\frac{\lambda+a+\pi}{2}.\cos.\left(\frac{\lambda+a+\pi}{2}-\pi\right)\text{ sec. }\lambda\text{ sec. }a$$

Table 31. is constructed for the purpose of finding the amplitude: but we doubt whether much time is gained by the formation of this table: because in using it we are obliged to make two multiplications, and in finding the amplitude by the common logarithmic tables, we have only to add the logarithmic sine of the declination to the logarithmic secant of the latitude, and to take out the angle corresponding to the *L* sine of the sum.—An error also appears to us to be made in the example given for the illustration of this table, p. 14. where the sun's declination is put 6° 17′: from which the amplitude does not result from the common method, 7° 18′: the true declination ought, it seems to us, to be 6° 47′: the error is nothing in itself, but it tends to raise suspicion in the mind of the calculator who makes use of the tables.

Table 43. of proportional parts, is very useful and commodious; and the author has fully explained its use.

We believe that the present volume contains all the tables which are requisite in Nautical Astronomy: that is, the tables here given suffice for the solution of all nautical problems: but the analytical solution of such problems must be accommodated to the tables. Solutions, for instance, that involve natural sines or cosines, must be rejected, or altered; and solutions also, which are expressed in terms of tangents or cotangents, are not adapted to the present tables, which contain no logarithmic tangents. We rather wish that the tangents had been inserted; for the present publication is much more *sizeable* than Taylor's quarto, and it is desirable to use it in cases for which the author has not given solutions, which solutions may be expressed by means of tangents. For instance, we had occasion to compute, from the lunar tables, the distance of the moon from a certain fixed star; and we found ourselves obliged, when we had gone half way in the computation, to put aside the present tables, and to seek in those of Taylor for a logarithmic tangent which we wanted: thus, if *D* and *d* be the declinations of the moon and a star, and τ the difference of their right ascensions, then *D* and *d* being opposite declinations,

$$\text{vers. (dist.)} = \text{vers. } (D+d).\ (\text{sec. }\theta)^2$$

where θ is such that

$$(\tan.\theta)^2 = \frac{\cos.\, d \cos.\, D.\ \text{vers. }\tau}{\text{vers. } (D+d)}$$

This is the most obvious solution: but it is true that another may be given, in which M. Mendoza's tables will be very commodious; thus

$\frac{1}{2}$ suvers.

$\frac{1}{2}$ suvers. (dist.) $= \frac{1}{2}$ suvers. θ . $\frac{1}{2}$ suvers. $(D+d)$

where θ is such that $\frac{\text{vers. }\theta}{2} = \frac{\text{cos. } d. \text{ cos. } D. \text{ vers. } r}{\text{suvers. } (D+d)}$

It is to be remarked that neither of these forms is applicable in all instances.

Other cases might be adduced, into which tangents enter; and time is expended in adapting the solutions to these tables, or in seeking for others. It may be argued, indeed, that we are neither obliged to look for other tables, nor to alter our solutions; because, if we take out the logarithmic sine and logarithmic secant, and add them together, we shall have the logarithmic tangent:—but then this is an *operation;* and if we admit such, we really want only a table of sines and cosines. That the present tables, however, will cause any unnecessary expenditure of time in computation, is the last reproach that ought to be made against them. From our own experience in the use of them, which is not altogether inconsiderable, and from our discernment of their plan and construction, we can boldly say that they facilitate and expedite computation much beyond any former tables. Almost every thing is done for the mariner, that, without extravagance of expectation, *can* be expected. If he can use his sextant, understand a plain statement, and add figures together, he may not despair of ascertaining the latitude and longitude of his vessel.

The ingenious author has received some pecuniary assistance from the Board of Longitude, and some from the East India Company: but he is eminently, in our opinion, intitled to public encouragement. From navigators he must derive his recompense; and we hope that familiarity with previous tables will not prevent them from making trial of the present. By their testimony, also, must the proof of the accuracy of these tables be obtained; a point on which it would be unreasonable to expect that we should speak.

R.W.

Art. III. *Familiar Letters from Italy, to a Friend in England.* By Peter Beckford, Esq. 2 Vols. 8vo. 18s. Boards. Hatchard, &c. 1805.

The character of a book of travels usually receives its colouring from some natural or acquired propensity of the author, and relates chiefly to antiquities, connoisseurship, topography, minerals, vegetables, animals, or the state of society, according to the reigning sentiments and dispositions of the tourist. There are individuals, however, of more capacious

minds, who take a wider range of observation, and consign to their journals every description and reflection which the occurrences of their progress suggest. Mr. Beckford belongs to this class of writers: but, as many of his letters were written before the year 1787, and most of them before the invasion of Italy by the French, the reader is honestly cautioned in the outset against perusing them with the view of obtaining recent intelligence. The multitude of publications, in which Italy is described, may also be presumed to diminish the expectations with which we open another on the same subject. Much has, doubtless, been anticipated, and much gratuitously repeated; yet the present writer very properly reminds us that different individuals contemplate the same objects in different lights, and describe them in different humours. We could have wished, therefore, that he had borrowed with more reserve from Lalande and others, and that he had not needlessly re-echoed what has been already so often said, merely because it happens to accord with his own observation and sentiments. A few references to the original authorities might have reduced these two volumes to one: but the author probably shrunk from the task of formal consultation; since we find him manifesting a marked dislike to the accurate indication even of those passages which he introduces in the way of illustration. 'If I should mention *Dionysius*,' says he, '*Polybius*, or any other Greek author, as probably I may, do not fancy that I read Greek. I have contented myself with an English translation, and advise you to do the same. As I have read more for amusement than improvement, I have trusted too much to memory. Favourite passages that I have transcribed from books, are not only incorrect, but unaccompanied often with the names of the authors, and sometimes even with the references to them.' All this may be very amusing to Mr. Beckford: but is it either amusing or respectful to the public?

On Florence, Pisa, Siena, Rome, and Naples, we have very extensive annotations, much of the historical and descriptive portions of which might have been spared; and an epitome of Roman history, however well executed, is surely misplaced in a rambling account of modern Rome. Some of the anecdotes, too, though not destitute of point, are rather aukwardly squeezed into the narrative; repetition has deprived others of their poignancy; and a regard to delicacy should have precluded the insertion of some. These remarks apply also to other parts of the performance. The style, though perspicuous and forcible, is occasionally too familar, and rather affectedly interlarded with foreign expressions. *Commercio libero* is substituted for *free trade*, *thériaque de Venise* for Venice treacle, and *Coro* for *choir*, though

the latter is very obligingly inserted in a parenthesis. We are also very gravely told of a tree called *Frasino (frassino)* and of the shrubs *Liquorizia*, *Sommaso*, and *Laurier-rose*; which, "being interpreted," are the Ash, Liquorice, Sumach, and Rose-bay.

Let us not, however, defraud Mr. Beckford of his due measure of praise. His long residence abroad has given a justness and a minuteness to some of his observations, which stamp them with a real value. He seldom allows prejudice or nationality to obscure his own good sense; and his manner is, for the most part, lively and entertaining, for he says much in a small compass, and usually says it well. Whoever intends to make the tour of Italy may derive many useful hints from his diversified pages, especially from his excellent directions concerning economy. His account of some of the more sequestered and remote districts, which are seldom visited by the traveller, and the manners and customs of whose inhabitants frequently furnish ample room for variety and interest of remark, will invite the curiosity of those readers who love to deviate from the beaten track. To such, his journeys to *Vallombrosa* and the convents on the Appenines, and his excursions to *Calci*, *Certosa*, &c. will afford a pleasing relief from the more hackneyed subjects of observation. We might visit many villas in England before we met with such a prohibition as is stuck up in the drawing room of the villa Prini—'*Che non sia lecito a chichessia pisciar sopra le scale.*'

For the sake of those whose health and fortune have been injured, we extract these notices of *Massa*, a small town four posts from Pisa.

'The orange and lemon trees suffer so little from the winter, that in the month of January many were covered with ripe fruit, and still in flower. The aloes had fruited in the open air, and yet the neighbouring mountains were covered with snow. In short, you see winter, but do not feel it; and strangers excepted, none approach a fire.

'Furnished lodgings may be had for ten sequins a month, linen, &c. included. A chair costs fifteen Florence livres a month. A coach is unnecessary. A servant is paid four crowns, and keeps himself; if you keep him, he then has ten pauls only (five shillings): and I am informed, that a maid does all the work of the house and kitchen in a Massa family, besides waiting on the lady, for three livres a month (two shillings and threepence). The price of a box at the Theatre for the Carnival, is three sequins: you pay at the door six soldi florentini (about threepence English), or may be *abbonnéd*, for seven pauls. The best beef is half a paul a pound; pork the same; sea fish, six soldi; a fowl, two pauls; a capon, three; a pigeon, one. The Massa livre is somewhat less than half the value of

of the Florentine, and you will generally observe, that where the livre is small, money is scarce, and consequently a sequin at Massa will go as far as two in Tuscany.

'The best families make a figure with five hundred sequins a year. Few have that income, none exceed it. The poorest of the Nobility may have from a hundred to a hundred and fifty sequins, and no more. If you inquire how they contrive to live on so little,—I believe you will find, by selling the corn of the month of June, before the end of the Carnival. I am only answerable for the mildness of the climate; economy of living; and civility of the inhabitants. My visit being to a person who was lodged in the palace, I can give no account of the accommodation: I fear it is indifferent; but, without doubt, if two or three English families were to establish themselves at Massa, they would soon find every convenience that is necessary.'

The ensuing miscellaneous strictures, on the habits and customs of the Florentines, will exemplify the light and easy manner in which the author not unfrequently indulges:

'Dress is no article of expence. You are not obliged, as in France, to have different clothes for the different seasons: you are at liberty to dress as you please; and an English frock may be worn throughout the year. We are told, that a country gentleman appeared at the Opera at Paris the beginning of autumn in his summer suit: he was stared at as a monster, and *habit d'eté, habit d'eté* was repeated all over the theatre. A friend of ours, by some strange fatality, wore a pair of point-ruffles in the month of May: the impropriety would have utterly ruined another man;—this gentleman, who is a man of wit, excused himself by saying—*he had a cold.* The Florentines are too wise to trouble themselves with numberless suits of clothes, for the sole benefit of their tailors. They go to the Opera in frocks; and during the Carnival, to the Balls in bauttes. They have a dress coat, and a *Gala* carriage; the latter lasts them their lives,—nor do they, like some that shall be nameless, change their carriages every two or three years to enrich their coachmakers. They have also *Gala* liveries; but they are made to last as long as they can. Every-day liveries must last two years: those who make a figure, give two; one for the summer, the other for the winter,—but each is to last two seasons.

'I cannot commend their taste, their very magnificence is inelegant. Behind the same carriage you will frequently see one footman very tall, the other very short. I have just met two such, who, being cloathed in green, looked like the sign of Robin Hood and Little John. You will also see one with a cocked hat, the other with a round one. There is a want of feeling in these trifles somewhat beyond a want of taste. Strictly speaking, even their hair should be dressed alike; and, if they wear queues, they should be of equal length.

'In all countries some customs are remarkable. When first I knew Florence, about twenty years ago, an odd custom prevailed at Court;—all the men curtsied to the Grand Duke and the Grand Duchess;

Duchess; foreigners only were permitted to bow, who were supposed to know no better.

'A refusal is expressed by the fingers in Italy as in other countries by the head. A common salutation is with the fingers up; and they call you, with the fingers down.

'It is said that the voice, in speaking, seldom rises higher, or sinks lower than three notes and a half. It is otherwise here; they change sometimes from their natural voice to a falsetto, till you are ready to laugh in their faces.

'They tell you, that if it rains on the third of April, it is to continue to rain for forty days after. We run a risk of losing all our faith in this country.

'The Florentine Nobility were, as I have said, originally merchants; book keepers were then necessary. They have retained the custom ever since, and in some families not less than eight or ten of those persons are constantly employed—I know not how.

'The Noblesse sell wine, and hang out the sign of an empty flask at the Palace window. A retail trade, like this of the Florentine Nobility, an English wine merchant would think beneath his dignity. The best tap going at present is that of the Bishop of Fiesole.

'It is ridiculous to see a Sposa Monaca dressed out to the height of the fashion, and driven about from one end of the town to the other. Mercy on us, what a mistake is here!—Content more easily proceeds from ignorance than conviction; nor is it prudent to indulge in any pleasures that are not always within our reach.

'The kitchen frequently is at the top of the house. I asked a reason of a Florentine friend, and he gave me two;—one, he said, was to prevent the smoke of the charcoal and smell of the dinner; the other, to render it more difficult for the servants to carry any thing away. As they are at board wages, the vulgar adage, *safe bind, safe find*, is never forgotten. Their masters know they are not scrupulous, and never put temptation in their way.

'It was the custom in the time of JUVENAL to blow the fire with their mouths,—it is so now. I have a fellow in my family whose mouth is better than any bellows.

'The extreme unction which is administered to those who are dying, is carried publicly, and in procession:—a custom as improper as unnecessary. The tinkling bell and hoarse voices of those that accompany it, are unpleasant sounds even to those who are well; and, at a time of epidemy, when deaths are frequent, might be fatal to those who are sick.—A Spanish proverb says:—"If you think you *shall* die, you *will* die."

'They wear mourning but a short time for the nearest relation, and that not constantly. I have known a husband marry two months after his wife's decease. It is true he was an elderly gentleman, and had no time to lose.

'Ladies in child-bed keep the house for forty days, and do not get up till the twelfth day; yet many Contadinas, after the third day, are out at work in the fields. I have read that in some parts of America

America the wife is no sooner delivered of her burden than she gets up, and her husband keeps his bed; she does the work of the house, and he goes through all the ceremonies of a lady in the straw. I had nearly forgotten one custom that I think will surprise you:—they *feed their cats*, and *poison their dogs*. Though held in less veneration in Italy than in Egypt, the cat still seems to be an object of general affection. Florence swarms with them. Here are people who make a trade of feeding them, and are paid by the inhabitants, who, notwithstanding their great economy, *keep more cats than catch mice*. Dogs, on the other hand, are scarce:—that amiable and friendly animal is not only neglected, but, during the summer months, is poisoned in the streets.—If you are here in the summer take care of Rover.

'I must leave off.—My house is in an uproar of laughter, at the expence of a poor cobler, my opposite neighbour. My servant having frequently missed different sums of money out of a drawer in my bed-chamber, he suspected the porter, and engaged his friend the cobler to watch and detect him. The affair did not appear difficult,—the money was always taken on a Monday, which was the day my weekly bills were settled; it was also observed, that the robbery was committed at the time the other servants were all of them at dinner: these circumstances caused the porter to be suspected; and it was thought that he used a false key, as the drawer was kept constantly locked. The cobler, who had readily accepted the office, made light of it; he used the common expression of his countrymen, *lascia fare*,—and longed for the arrival of Monday to shew his prowess.—At length Monday came, and the honest cobler, determined to take the thief, placed himself where he could best observe all that passed in the chamber, and catch him in the fact. It was not long before he appeared:—he was cautious and cunning,—he secured the door, he listened if all was quiet:—there was a closet in the room, he examined it carefully, and then went to the chest of drawers to begin his operation.—The cobler now thought he had him safe enough,—but unluckily, as the Devil would have it, the porter, recollecting that he had not looked under the bed, lifted up the *valance*, and discovered our friend.—It is not easy to conceive the ridiculous figure the poor cobler made, lugged out from his hiding place, taken prisoner, and brought down stairs, as a culprit, by the very thief he had promised to detect.—He seems determined never to turn thief-taker again. The porter is discharged.'

Mr. Beckford can likewise moralize with justice and feeling on some of the most striking characters that are portrayed in history:

'Though I admire,' says he, 'the brilliant actions of a hero, it is seldom I can approve his sentiments. In *Cæsar*, for instance, I see conduct and activity beyond all example; a daring spirit which no peril could intimidate, nor any difficulties could subdue: *sang froid* in danger, resources in distress, and fortune ever favorable.—But was he not, this friend of *Catiline*, profligate, ambitious, and cruel?—as void of principle, as of humanity?—a curse to other nations, and a tyrant to

to his own?—more dreadful than even pestilence or famine?—Rivers of tears, and seas of blood, were the price of every triumph, and he covered his bald head with laurel by the butchery of his fellow-creatures*.'

In the author's reprobation of arbitrary imprisonment, we recognize the manly and humane language of an enlightened Briton:

'Confinement,' he observes, 'without a trial is the height of despotism. Delay in criminal examinations is cruelty, since it inflicts an unnecessary punishment on the innocent. Could I have persuaded myself to enter those dreary mansions of confined misery, I should have been curious to see if they are kept sweet and clean to prevent infection; if the lesser villains are kept separate from those whose crimes are more atrocious; and the men from the women. As the innocent man is frequently confined, as well as the guilty, common justice requires that his health may not suffer; and for your own sakes, Lords of the universe, take care that his morals be not corrupted. The prosperity of a country depends much on its principles and morality. Carthage and Rome on their decline were cruel, immoral, and unjust.'

Humanity, however, seems not to have guided our traveller's pen, when he recommends the flogging of insolvent debtors, in a commercial country. The expediency of whipping, as a punishment, is at best problematical; and in every country in which commercial transactions are extended and multiplied, there will be many innocent though unfortunate bankrupts. Mr. Beckford will also permit us to express our unqualified regret, that he should plead in behalf of cock-fighting, bull-baiting, &c. practices which are so abhorrent from the genuine spirit of civilization and of Christianity. True bravery and heroism are very dissimilar from ferocity, and derive their origin as well as their support from very different principles and dispositions. Indeed, could it be proved that the exhibition of barbarous scenes was requisite to the defence of our country, we should then not hesitate to aver that our country was unworthy of being defended.

It only remains to observe that, with the exceptions to which we have adverted, these Letters may considerably contribute to the amusement and instruction of the public.

'*By *cruelty* nothing more is meant than that which is necessarily included in a life unnecessarily dedicated to the destruction of mankind. CÆSAR was humanity itself compared with the cowardly cut-throats who immediately succeeded him.'

Muir.

ART. IV. *A connected and chronological View of the Prophecies relating to the Christian Church;* in twelve Sermons: preached in Lincoln's Inn Chapel from the Year 1800 to 1804, at the Lecture founded by the Right Rev. William Warburton, Lord Bishop of Gloucester. By Robert Nares, A.M. F.R.S. F.A.S. Archdeacon of Stafford, &c. 8vo. pp. 371. 7s. 6d. Boards. Rivingtons.

AT the Lecture instituted by Dr. Warburton, for the purpose of proving the truth of the Christian religion from the completion of the Prophecies, four series of sermons have been preached. The first was by Dr. Hurd, now Bp. of Worcester, published in 1772; the second by Dr. Hallifax, afterward Bp. of Gloucester, in 1776; the third by Dr. Bagot, afterward Bp. of Bristol, Norwich, and St. Asaph, in 1780; and the fourth by Dr. Apthorpe, Rector of St. Mary-le-Bow, in 1786. Having followed such predecessors, Mr. Nares may be supposed to have had peculiar stimuli to exertion: but, whether he regarded the subject as in a manner exhausted, or whether he felt himself unequal to enter into a deep and erudite discussion of it, he has contented himself with tracing a general outline, and with giving short comments on the prophecies from Genesis to the Revelation. Such superficial notices are adapted to an ordinary congregation, but are not (we should think) calculated for the Society of Lincoln's Inn, and for the Warburtonian Lecture.

Prophecy is considered as the bond of connection between the two Covenants; and as our Saviour declares (Luke xxiv. 44.) that there are passages in the law of Moses, in the Prophets, and in the Psalms, which refer to him, the first object of these discourses is to enumerate and discuss those 'prophecies which relate to him as author and perpetual head of the Christian Church,' and the second to arrange and explain 'those which foretell the fate of his disciples, whether adverse or prosperous, from the time of his departure from them, to that of his last most solemn advent.'

The greatest portion of the volume is occupied with remarks on the prophecies of the O. T.; in which Mr. Nares, though occasionally he hints at being original, appears to us to follow a very beaten track, and to retail a number of old fashioned observations. He gives himself credit for exactly marking the commencement of the Jewish Theocracy to be at the time when (Exod. vi. 3.) *Jehovah* declares to the Israelites that he will be their God; and he boldly tells us that, on the soundest authorities of the Jewish and Christian Churches, Jehovah is Christ, so that virtually the Jewish nation was then under the government of Christ. We think that Mr. Nares would be puzzled

puzzled to produce any sound authority in the Jewish Church, which asserted that Jehovah and the Messiah were the same person; and it is not easy to reconcile such a position with the doctrine of the Trinity, unless we "*confound the persons*," which we are prohibited from doing.

We are also informed, in the same sermon, that 'the death of Christ, as historically recorded, took place on the very day of the *paschal sacrifice*, which it was to supersede.' There is certainly no originality in this doctrine, which has been maintained before Mr. Nares preached his lectures: but, if he had read Dr. Whitby's Appendix to his Annotations on the 14th chapter of St. Mark, or Jennings's account of the Passover in his Jewish Antiquities, he must have been convinced that such a position is untenable.

With reference to Types and Double Senses, the preacher repeats assertions which have been often advanced on these subjects, but he has presented us with no new light. All judicious interpreters must be aware of the peril which we encounter in abandoning the imagination to the discovery of types, and of the double and treble accomplishments of prophecies. It is edifying, indeed, to teach us that 'the Israelites altogether are justly considered as typifying the Christian world. Their bondage in Egypt is truly said to represent the natural and unconverted state of man, in bondage to sin and wrath. God then became their King, and by the blood of the Paschal Lamb, rescued them from impending destruction. Their passage through the wilderness delineates to us the probationary struggles of Christians; and the promised land of Canaan prefigures the heavenly Kingdom, towards which we travel in our pilgrimage through life.' Such hints are often administered to country-congregations: but we suspect that the critics of Lincoln's Inn did not approve of having David, the adulterer and man of blood, represented as a *type* of the immaculate Prince of peace; nor, because Christ affirms that allusion is made to him in the Psalms, of having it laid down as a general position that '*Every thing* in the Psalms may be considered in some sense as applicable to him.' Is it logical to erect an universal proposition on particular facts?

Many divines besides Mr. Nares have contended for the double sense of prophecy: but the objection against this mode of interpretation is truly formidable, and nothing which is advanced in this volume contributes in the smallest degree to remove it. On the other hand, the very instances which are produced as explanatory of a double sense are adverse to that idea. A passage in Numbers xxiv. 27. is given as an instance of the twofold meaning or intention of prophecy: but "the *star* and the

sceptre, which were to smite the corners of Moab and destroy all the children of Seth," cannot, without making more use of fancy than of judgment, be applied to the conquests of the Jews, and to the peaceful reign of the Messiah. We are taught that, by "the sons of Seth," we are to understand *all* mankind: but the preacher does not tell us, as he ought to do, that Christ was to smite all mankind.

A chain of prophecies obviously referring to Christ will be found in the O. T.: but to endeavour without adequate reason to increase their number, and to maintain that 'our Saviour was intended to be designated wherever the circumstances apply to him,' will serve only to increase the cavils of infidels. Aware of the danger of attempting to prove too much, we should be inclined to adopt that plan which is calculated to diminish rather than to accumulate objections; and we would recommend to Mr. Nares the perusal of Dr. Sykes's remarks on double senses, and on the method of judging of the sense of Revelation (see Principles of Natural and Revealed Religion, p. 217. et seq.) Dr. S. observes that "our Saviour and the Apostles applied the term to *fulfill*, where there was only a similitude of circumstances, and that they cited the words of the Old Testament, without always designing to express the accomplishment of a prophecy." The adaptation of past circumstances to present events is noted by the Evangelists, without the intimation of a prediction or of a double sense. Convincing instances of this fact are quoted by Dr. Sykes.

Having separately noticed the succession of Jewish prophets, Mr. Nares, when he arrives at the awful interval of 400 years which occurred between the two dispensations, takes a retrospective view of the first part of his subject. From this sermon (No. 9.) we shall make an extract:

'If we consider the conduct of Divine Providence towards the Jews, and the manifest uses of prophecy to them, we shall see other probable reasons (and, since Scripture is silent upon it, only probable reasons can exist) for this long interruption of the line of Prophets. When their kingdom was first settled, with the express approbation of God, under his faithful servant David, the promise of the Messiah was fixed to his family, and became a constant subject of prophetic vision to that inspired Monarch; insomuch that, in all his Psalms, whatever be their primary intention, there may be understood a secret, if not a manifest reference, to that glorious Personage, and his everlasting Kingdom. The same happened, in some degree, to his son and successor Solomon. But, when he fell into idolatry; and, still more, when the kingdom, after him, was divided, and the separated kingdom of Israel had been formed into a regular establishment of idolatrous worship, two great uses of prophecy, among others, became particularly conspicuous: 1. the one, to warn both Israel and

Judah of the impending punishments, which must ensue, if they continued their idolatrous practices; 2. the other, to preserve and keep alive their faith in that Great Deliverer, who was hereafter to appear. Various other collateral purposes, both to the Jews, and to other nations, were effected, from time to time, by means of prophecy; but these were the great lines, continued through every part of the dispensation, and perpetually recalled to notice.

'At length the vengeance, so long threatened, fell upon the whole nation; and seventy years of captivity, in a foreign country, while their city, their territory, and their temple, were trodden down and lay in desolation, proved beyond all controversy one part of the above proposition, i. e. "*that God would punish for idolatry in the way that he had then denounced; namely, by rejection, and national shame.*" But, in the deep misery of this infliction, there was a danger, that the contrary movement of despair might succeed to the infatuated obstinacy of the people: or it might have happened, that, when they were removed, for nearly two generations, from their own language, and all the local recollections of their country; placed in the midst of idolaters, and in a state of slavery under them, they might totally have forgotten their God, their duties, and their hopes, and have become an undistinguishable part of the people among whom they lived. To prevent these evils, their prophets were continued through the captivity, during which period some of the most illustrious of those heavenly Messengers were commissioned to instruct, to comfort, and to warn them. When they returned from captivity, while their second temple was building, and their re-established nation was gradually acquiring solidity and strength, the line of prophets was continued, for about a century.

'The promises of the Messiah had now been confirmed, and fully opened; and their last prophet, Malachi, concluded his Book with what appears, as before noticed, to be a farewell charge. For he told them, "that the Sun of Righteousness should arise, with healing in his wings: that they ought in the mean time, to adhere to the Law of Moses, and the Statutes given to Israel in Horeb; and that before THE GREAT DAY of the Lord," that is, THE COMING OF THE MESSIAH, "Elias should be sent, to prepare HIS way, lest the whole land should fall under the curse of unbelief." This is the substance of the concluding verses of Malachi, and contains a kind of general warning, respecting the Messiah, and the interval which was to precede his manifestation.

'The chief purposes of prophecy, with respect to the Jews, were now completed. The people were weaned from idolatry, into which they never afterwards relapsed; the Laws of Moses, and the service of the Temple, were re-established, and were not likely to be again neglected; the promise of the Messiah was made as clear as words could make it; and no new punishment remained to be denounced. The intervening period was to be a period of expectation; resting on former promises, and the written records of Scripture; till HE should come into the world, who was to fulfil all promises, and realize all authorized hopes. Providence does nothing in vain. While prophecy could render service, it was continued; when it could do no

more than was already done—no more than would be equally effected by its preservation in writing, it ceased; and revived no more till the approach of him, who had been its first and greatest object.'

This passage will shew that Mr. Nares possesses some of the qualities of a good preacher.

In the second grand division of his subject, he ranges the prophecies under 10 heads:

'1. The rejection of the Jews, and call of the Gentiles. 2. The preaching of the Gospel throughout the world. 3. The persecutions of the Apostles and their converts. 4. The destruction of Jerusalem. 5. The fate of Rome, and its conversion. 6. The rise of Mahomet and the Saracenic power. 7 The rise and character of Antichrist. 8. The conversion of the Jews. 9. The general prevalence of the Gospel. 10. The universal Resurrection, and Day of Judgment.'

It is not in our power to attend the preacher through these particulars: but we cannot avoid noticing that he speaks with commendable caution on the return of the Jews to their own land; remarking that 'it is by no means improbable that the expressions employed respecting their land may be altogether figurative.' In conclusion, he trusts that the contemplation of the subject of prophecy will confirm the faith of the Christian; and that hence such light in due time will beam on the accomplishment of those predictions which respect a future period, as will completely dissipate the doubts of the Infidel, and give to Gospel Truth an universal triumph. If we cannot subscribe to all Mr. Nares's positions, in this pleasing contemplation we sincerely accord.

Mo-y.

ART. V. *A Vindication of the Justice and Policy of the late Wars carried on in Hindostan and the Deckan, by Marquis Wellesley, Governor General, &c. &c.* in Conjunction with his Highness the Peishwah, Bajee Rao, Chief of the Marhatta States; against the subordinate Marhatta Chieftains, Dowlut Rao Scindiah, Ragajee Bhoonslah, and Jesswunt Rao Holkar. 4to. 5s. sewed. Stockdale. 1806.

INDIVIDUALS in parliament, the East India Company, the Directors, and the public voice, impute misconduct to the Maquis Wellesley in the administration of the affairs of India. The dispatch proposed to be sent to the noble Marquis by the Directors, of which the public is now in possession, embraces a vast mass of criminating matter, stated with great ability and temper; and in mild and gentle terms, severe charges are preferred against the late Governor-General. The Mahratta war seems to be the chief grievance, which, under the appearance of being lightly touched, is here deeply probed. It is not usual

for

for sovereigns to quarrel with their servants because they extend their territories and aggrandize their power, but such an act constitutes a principal head of complaint against the personage in question. Whether this displeasure arises from a superiority to the vulgar policy of courts, or whether the habits of traffic and mercantile calculation form the basis, we shall leave to be conjectured by persons of greater penetration and possessing better means of information than ourselves: but, had the advantages clearly compensated for the cost, and had the conquests and the ascendancy occasioned no financial pressure, it may be fairly doubted whether they would have excited any dissatisfaction in Leadenhall-street.

In the writer of the present tract, the late Chief Governor finds a zealous advocate and admirer; and one who, in the conduct of his defence, gives proofs of judgment and ability. He principally adverts to the charges brought against the Marquis's political measures, and to the other matters he only slightly and incidentally alludes. In the perusal of these accusations and apologies, the mind seeks to be satisfied in the following points: Did Lord Wellesley, while Governor-General of India, confine himself within his powers and instructions? Did he compromise the good faith and justice of the Company? Were the measures, which have been arraigned, founded in sound policy? If they were, was he justified in adopting them?

On the first two heads, no defence, we presume, is to be made; at least it is not attempted by the present apologist. That the Governor disregarded not only the letter but the very spirit and substance of his instructions, and that he violated those pacific maxims which the Company professed, and which the legislature had consecrated and rendered binding on all the administrators of India, are matters clear as the light: but, says this vindicator, speaking of the time of the noble Marquis's arrival at the seat of government,

'The period of our decline in India seemed not to be remote, unless a counterpoise should be provided by a corresponding increase of strength on our part, sufficient to free us from the danger rapidly approaching in the augmented power and resources of those states which appeared the most likely hereafter to contend with us for empire in that quarter. The treaty of Worgaum, the recapture of Bidanore, and the surrender of its garrison under General Matthews; the destruction of Colonel Baillie's brave detachment, and the occasional retreat of our main armies on both coasts before Hyder and Tippoo, have since sufficiently shewn the rising military strength of the native states of India, and the consequent decline of the military dominion of the Company. But, anterior to these events, the danger was too evident not to be perceived; and the necessity, with a view to the

preservation of our power, of assuming at a just and favourable moment a wider grasp of action, had become apparent to all who watched attentively the seeds and progress of this danger. In the growing improvement of the native armies, our expulsion was to be seen; and a change had already been effected in our general relations with the country powers, and in the military and political strength of the leading states, which silently menaced our existence. This change was only to be met by departing from the line of policy laid down in earlier times and under different circumstances. An enlargement of dominion, an extension of revenue, a reduction of French influence, a more formidable military establishment in all respects, judicious alliances with some of the leading states; a less dangerous construction and combination of their force, and a preponderating weight in the principal durbars of the East, founded in the salutary fear of our power, no less than in a just confidence in our friendship; these were the only counterpoises that could be applied successfully to the preservation of an empire, which national injury, and not lust of power threw in our way: and with these bulwarks, subsequent circumstances amply furnished us, without the imputation of injustice on our part.'

Here we have the authority of Sir George Dallas, who is publicly stated to be the author of this tract, for supposing that our situation required precisely the measures which his noble friend followed. His narrative also instructs us that the hostile chieftains were guilty of those aggressions which made it just and lawful to establish, by force of arms, that increased power and influence which the state of affairs rendered necessary. Very fortunate, according to this reasoning, was the India government and its chief administration; the system which it was necessary to set on foot in order to avoid ruin would not have been introduced without incurring guilt, had other powers kept within the line of their duty: but, luckily for the star of Britain in the East, the rivals of our power very obligingly and most conveniently supplied us with ample grounds for those seizures of territory, and those schemes of ascendancy, without which our doom was sealed. No Ascetic was ever more free from the taint of ambition, and the desire of distinction, than was the noble Marquis in the whole of this business; if we believe Sir George, he acted throughout from a pure sense of the duty which he owed to his employers and to his country; and he is therefore an innocent, meritorious, and much injured individual. This persuasion, however, must rest on the faith which is placed in the vindicator, since we meet with very little to substantiate his assertions; while, on the contrary, his pages make disclosures that are not very consistent with them, but at least weaken if they do not contradict them. If Sir G. Dallas's positions could be proved, the measures of Lord Wellesley, in themselves considered, would not only escape

escape censure but call for applause: but, as it was necessary to establish these important positions, why was not this at least attempted? We are told that the native powers were making alarming proficiency in the art of war; that French agents were numerous; and that the hope of French support caused a spirit of disaffection towards the English to prevail. The progress of the Company's arms, however, and the ineffectual resistance made to them, do not very well accord with these statements. The arbiter of the destinies of the East takes scarcely a longer period to reduce the Peninsula of India, than does the chief of the European continent to defeat his enemies in the campaign of 1805;—and the complaints made against these conquests are not so much that they will raise us formidable enemies, as that they invest us with territories which we have not resources to support nor troops to defend, and entail debts on us which we have not the means of liquidating. The easy reduction of the whole Peninsula by the British arms seems to us very much to militate against, if it does not absolutely overturn, the hypothesis that the situation of India required a departure from the established policy professed by the Company, and prescribed to them by Parliament. So do matters appear to us to stand, on the statements even of the advocates themselves of Lord Wellesley. We abstain, however, from giving a decided opinion on the subject.

In regard to aggression in the late contests, the question is more clear. Here it is confidently asserted that it lay with Scindiah: but we must shut our eyes, or we cannot help perceiving that the cause proceeded from Lord Wellesley. It was unquestionably the treaty of Bassein that has been the source of all the ravages and bloodshed which have since followed. By that treaty, the chief of the Mahratta empire became the absolute vassal of the Company's government; and he was bound to receive British troops into his dominions, and to assign territories for the support of them. Lord Wellesley foresaw opposition on the part of the principal chiefs of the confederacy; and it was impossible that they should acquiesce, if they could in any degree reckon on a successful resistance. That the noble Lord, then, provoked the war in India is beyond all doubt: but whether that was wisely or lawfully done, we leave to be determined by others. We are here told that

'Predatory irruptions, foreign and internal oppressions and exaction, perfidy, domestic murders, public massacres, famine, depopulation and wide-spreading misery; this is their system: these have been the volcanoes which too long have encircled our possessions, and overflowed the plains of India. To extinguish them is no more than justice to ourselves; to close their crater, the sublimest humanity to the

the suffering millions who have long been exposed to their ravages. This has been the policy our security demanded: this has been the course to which our glory pointed: and this has been the successful end to which the exertions of Lord Wellesley have tended.'

The noble Marquis, however, had not been sent to India on a mission of philanthropy; and no other province had been allotted to him than to administer the functions of the head of the government, within the limits of the powers and instructions with which he had been furnished. Motives of this sort were stated to have led to the partition of Poland, by the benevolent and royal sharers of the spoil.

Speaking of the late Governor-General, the eloquent apologist breaks out into the following panegyric:

'In the tranquillity of the native states throughout the Deckan and Hindostan, he traces not merely a more solid security for the preservation of our own power; but in the advantages of peace to them he discerns fresh sources of prosperity to ourselves: the condition of society meliorated—our political relations improved—the industry of India reanimated: strife disarmed: jealousy restrained: new channels of commerce opened: the interchange of produce enlarged: the merchants of India journeying in security from one state to another: our home manufactures reaching countries where before they never entered: an improved revenue to the Company and the state: the vast peninsula of India reposing after the convulsion of centuries: its rest secured by judicious alliances, and well poised power: the warlike tribes which cover it, restrained in their predatory habits, and gradually incited by the sweets of peace, to turn their attention to the happier pursuits of commerce and of agriculture, instead of moistening, as heretofore, their plains with the blood of each other; and lastly, the national character and honour exalted, by the sublime result of so generous and elevated a line of policy. These happy ends he traces as a consequence from the principle of establishing, through a system of well distributed power, a durable peace among the different states of India, and more immediately of those composing the Mahratta confederacy. In this way he sees, that individual benefit is general good; that the misery of one state is not the happiness of another, but that the prosperity of each increases the felicity of all. This is the system of Lord Wellesley. It embraces peace, and repudiates war: it denies that partial misery is public good: it disowns the principle that the blood of one nation is a desirable offering to the prosperity of another: it rejects the doctrine that, to foment their intestine divisions and arm them against each other, is a wise or a dignified line of conduct either morally or politically considered; but it admits, as it seeks to establish, that to resist their encroachments, to crush their exactions, to heal their differences, to stifle their wars, to curb the enlargement of their empire, to balance more justly their power, to uphold the authority of their Peishwah or chief magistrate, and through its stability, to ameliorate equally the condition of the sovereign and the subject, are objects of an enlarged and rational policy;

policy; and that the surest way of increasing the prosperity of British India, of strengthening the affections of its inhabitants, and of ensuring to us the general good-will of the great masses composing the subjects of these different states, is through the medium of a lasting peace guaranteed to them by a commanding power, to make them participate in the tranquillity, security, and happiness, which the Company's possessions enjoy. These are the views of Lord Wellesley, and this is the plan to the completion of which his attention has been directed. It is needless to comment on its quality; its splendour is marked by the shade of its contrast.'

The ears of the hero, who proposes to restore the empire of the West, have, we believe, been saluted with similar sounds; and all these advantages have been depicted as sure to follow from the subjection of the European civilized world, to the paramount influence which already embraces a very considerable portion of it. The resemblance between the acts and proceedings of the personages to whom we here allude, on the several scenes of the continent of Europe and the peninsula of Hindostan, we have before taken the liberty of suggesting; and it is not a little curious, while it is in our opinion corroborative of the similarity, that the advocates and the apologists of the one and the other adopt the same reasoning and have recourse to the same topics.

As those parts of the instructions given to Lord Wellesley, and those clauses of the statutes which affect the political measures of the late Governor-General, are not before us, we are unable to give any opinion on the question whether there be sufficient ground for exhibiting charges against him in the high court of Parliament; and a recent decision of that august tribunal shews that the framing of the accusations to be alleged is a matter of extreme nicety. The inclination of our minds, however, is that the affair of the Mahratta war, though most open to animadversion, would not furnish the basis of a successful impeachment; and it may be thought that the other serious charges are scarcely of sufficient importance to engage the attention of the same jurisdiction, but may more fitly be heard and decided before the tribunal lately created by statute for such purposes.

It is but justice to the noble person who has been lately so much the subject of public attention, to state that nothing mean and sordid is imputed to him,—no peculation, nor any thing bordering on it. If he has done wrong, he has been carried away by ambition,—the infirmity of great minds, the vice of high stations;—and if he be an offender, he is at least a splendid one. If the display of great ability, perfect success, and some beneficial effects, cannot change the nature of things, they

they are sometimes allowed to mitigate and even to avert the infliction of punishment, and they uniformly oblige us to respect while we condemn.

Jo.

ART. VI. *Remarks on the Husbandry and internal Commerce of Bengal.* 8vo. pp. 206. 5s. 6d. Boards. Blacks and Parry.

OUR empire in the East is now so vast and important, that it is most devoutly to be wished that Science should concur with Policy in promoting its stability and advancement. It is to us a circumstance of pleasing contemplation, that, though Commerce is the first object of our connection with the Eastern world, literature is not neglected, and that the number of students of Asiatic learning is continually increasing. We have shewn our rivals, who have affected to regard us as a nation of shop-keepers, that we look into other books besides the *Ledger*; and that with our own interest we connect the melioration and comfort of those with whom we maintain intercourse.

The climate and localities of Asia are indeed so different from those of our own country, that the British farmer can obtain no hints for practice from remarks on the Husbandry of Bengal: but the volume before us will be interesting to the philosopher, both as conveying information to him, and as suggesting an agreeable reflection on the agricultural improvement of a large district of Asia, by the diffusion of European knowlege and skill among its cultivators. It is, we believe, admitted that we surpass all nations in the construction of implements of husbandry; and if we can prevail on the Bengal farmer to adopt an English plough, we shall enable him to perform his work with more facility as well as more perfectly, thus increasing to him the produce of the soil. Sufficient evidence is given in this work, to prove that Agriculture in Bengal, though it furnishes a great variety of crops, is scarcely intitled to the appellation of a science, and that it admits of amendments which our enlightened farmers could easily specify. Perhaps the state of society, and the habits of the country, where the cultivator and manufacturer are constantly united, (to say nothing of tenure and occupancy,) must prevent any very extensive alterations for the better: but a considerable effect would be ensured by the single circumstance of substituting a plough that will turn over the soil, for one that only scratches it.

In a commercial view, the state of our Eastern possessions is capable of great amelioration. They would furnish, by proper management, at a low price, various objects of exportation with

with which we are supplied from other countries. We have in our Asiatic empire a mine of wealth which has not yet been sufficiently explored; and which, if judiciously worked, would not more contribute to our own opulence than to the prosperity of the natives. The subject is copious and interesting; and the present volume must be regarded rather as a sketch or outline than a satisfactory representation of it.

The author, indeed, calls this an unfinished treatise: yet we are disposed to regard it with indulgence; and, while merit is due to him for the report which he has given, we trust that the magnitude of the object will induce others of our countrymen to follow him in the same track. The present remarks formed part of a work written by several gentlemen, and printed for private circulation several years ago at Calcutta; and they are now published by themselves, in consequence of the death of the gentlemen by whom the chief part of the remainder was written, which had never received the corrections of the author.—The volume contains accounts of the aspect, climate, soil, and inhabitants of Bengal; of its population, husbandry, and tenures; of the profits of husbandry, and of its internal commerce; and of the several objects of exportation. A tolerable idea is given of the climate and soil of Bengal, in the subsequent extract:

'The seasons of Bengal conform with the changes of the prevailing winds. They are commonly distinguished by the terms of cold, hot and rainy; but the natives, on the result of closer observation, subdivide them, and reckon six seasons, each containing two months.

'The spring and the dry season occupy four months, during which the heat progressively increases until it becomes almost intolerable even to the natives themselves. In the middle parts of Bengal, however, the extreme sultriness of the weather is moderated by occasional thunder-storms, accompanied by rain or hail, and driven by sudden gusts of north-west wind. In the eastern districts, milder showers of rain are still more frequent and refresh the heated atmosphere. But, in Bihar, and in districts contiguous to it, a parching wind from the westward prevails during a large portion of the hot season. It blows with great strength during the day, but is commonly succeeded at night by a cool breeze in the contrary direction; and it sometimes ceases for days or weeks, giving way to easterly gales. Beyond the limits of Bihar, the parching winds are still more prevalent; refreshing breezes, or cooling showers of rain and hail, more rare.

'At length the scorched inhabitants are relieved by the rainy season; which, in general, commences nearly at the same time throughout the whole province. During the two first months, according to the usual course of seasons, the rain is heavy and continual; in this period an intermission of many successive days is rare, and the rain

pours

pours with such force and continuance, that three, four, and even five, inches of water have fallen in a single day. In the two subsequent months, the intermissions are more frequent and of longer duration; and the heat and closeness of the weather has entitled this season to the name of sultry. The rivers and the Ganges especially, which had begun to rise even before the commencement of the rainy season, continue to increase during the two first months of it, and the Ganges reaches its greatest height in the third. By this time all the rivers of Bengal are swoln, and the Delta of the Ganges is overflowed; other portions of Bengal are indeed exempted from annual inundation; but they sometimes experience it as a calamity, in years when a sudden and uncommon fall of rain swells the rivers beyond the level which they usually attain. This temporary variation in the quantity of water does not much affect the general average of the year: for, the annual fall of rain, in the lower parts of Bengal, is seldom short of seventy inches and as seldom exceeds eighty.

'At the approach of winter, the rivers begin to decrease, showers cease to fall, and the inundation gradually drains off or evaporates. Fogs, the natural consequences of such evaporation in cold weather, are frequent in most parts of Bengal proper. Dew, at this season, is every where abundant and penetrating; and, in the higher latitudes of India, as well as in the mountainous tracts of it, frost and extreme cold are experienced. Even in the flat country, ice is obtained by the simple artifice of assisting evaporation in porous vessels, although the atmosphere be much warmer than the freezing temperature; and a blighting frost is sometimes deplored in Bihar and Benares. The natives do therefore not improperly distinguish the winter into two seasons, the frosty and the dewy. It must, however, be remarked, that dews are copious in Bengal throughout the whole winter, and greatly assist vegetation, affording nearly as much moisture as corn requires in a soil so loose, though retentive, as that which is most prevalent throughout the province.

'The general soil of Bengal is clay, with a considerable proportion of siliceous sand, fertilised by various salts, and by decayed substances, animal and vegetable. In the flat country, sand is every where the basis of this stratum of productive earth; it indicates an accession of soil on land which has been gained by the dereliction of water. The progress of this operation of nature presents itself to the view in the deviations of the great rivers of Bengal, where changes are often sudden and their dates remembered. A period of thirty years scarcely covers the barren sand with soil sufficient to fit it for rewarding the labours of the husbandman; the lapse of a century does not remove it half a span from the surface. In tracts, which are annually inundated, the progress is more rapid; and that, for obvious reasons, which equally explain why such tracts exhibit a greater depth of productive soil and a larger proportion of clay than other regions. A compound of calcareous and siliceous earth assumes, in many places, a firm texture and forms a stone named Kunkur. In some parts, iron ore enters into the composition and gives it a still firmer texture. A similar accretion of sand and clay bears the same appellation. Siliceous stones of various kinds, which have fallen from the hills, chequer

quer the contiguous plains, and form one more exception to general uniformity. If the variable proportions of clay and sand, and the circumstances of frequent alterations in the channels of rivers, be considered, great inequality of soil may be expected, though it be composed of few substances.

'In his progress through Bengal, the traveller will not confine himself to remark the natural diversity in the aspect of the country, but will compare the neat habitations of the peasants, who reside in hilly regions, with the wretched huts of those who inhabit the plain; and the contrast may suggest a reflection, how little the richest productions and most thriving manufactures contribute to the general comfort of the people at large.'

Calculations are made to ascertain the amount of the population, the whole of which, including the province of Benares, the author estimates at not less than 27,000,000, and he states the number of acres in tillage at 31,335,570.

The line of the poet

"Man wants but little here below"

applies with singular justice to the inhabitants of Bengal, who live chiefly on rice and salt, and for whose annual consumption the produce of one acre of tilled ground nearly suffices.

Among the articles of Asiatic husbandry, are enumerated, rice, corn, pulse of different kinds, mustard, linseed, sesamum, palmachristi for the purpose of obtaining vegetable oils, tobacco, sugar, indigo, cotton, poppy, and the mulberry for silk-worms. The mode of culture in all cases is very simple:

'The plough is drawn by a single yoke of oxen, guided by the ploughman himself. Two or three pairs of oxen, assigned to each plough, relieve each other, until the daily task be completed. Several ploughs in succession deepen the same furrows, or rather scratch the surface; for the implement, which is used throughout India, wants a contrivance for turning the earth, and the share has neither width nor depth to stir a new soil. A second ploughing crosses the first, and a third is sometimes given diagonally to the preceding. These frequently repeated, and followed by the substitute for the harrow, pulverise the surface, and prepare it for the reception of seed. The field must be watched for several days, after it has been sown, to defend it from the depredations of numerous flocks of birds. This is commonly the occupation of children, stationed to scare the birds from the new sown ground. It is also necessary to prolong the defence of the field in those districts which are much infested by wild boars, buffaloes, and deer. For this purpose a stage is erected, and a watchman is stationed on it at night to scare wild animals, should they approach. In all districts, mays and some sorts of millet, when nearly arrived at maturity, generally need defence from the depredations of birds by day and of large bats by night. For this purpose, also, a watchman is placed on an elevated stage; and other expedients, common in all countries, are likewise resorted to. These expedients

add neither to the expense nor to the toils of husbandry; but the employment of watchmen must be counted as some addition to the labour of agriculture.'

A long chapter details the tenures of occupants, the property of the soil, rents and duties, &c., but we shall pass this over, as not very intelligible to the European reader.

It does not appear that the profits of farming are considerable in Bengal, though the price of labour is less than 2d. sterling per day. We are informed that, of all rural objects, the Bengal peasant is most attached to his native soil by his Orchard:

'He feels a superstitious predilection for the trees planted by his ancestor, and derives comfort and even profit from their fruit. Orchards of mango-trees diversify the plains in every part of Bengal. The delicious fruit, exuberantly borne by them, is a wholsome variety in the diet of the Indian, and affords him gratification and even nourishment. The palmyra abounds in Bihar: the juice extracted, by wounding its summit, becomes, when fermented, an intoxicating beverage, which is eagerly sought by numerous natives, who violate the precepts of both the Hindu and Mahomedan religions by the use of inebriating liquors. The coco-nut thrives in those parts of Bengal which are not remote from the tropic: this nut contains a milky juice grateful to the palate, and is so much sought by the Indian, that it even becomes an object of exportation to distant provinces. The date-tree grows every where, but especially in Bihar; the wounded trunk of this tree yields a juice which is similar to that of the palmyra, and from which sugar is not unfrequently extracted. Plantations of areca are common in the centrical parts of Bengal: its nut, which is universally consumed throughout India, affords considerable profit to the planters. The bassia thrives even on the poorest soils, and abounds in the hilly districts; its inflated corols are esculent and nutritious, and yield by distillation an intoxicating spirit; and the oil, which is expressed from its seed, is in mountainous countries a common substitute for butter.'

On the preparation of Opium, the commerce of which is monopolized by the English Company, this brief notice is subjoined:

'The preparation of the raw opium is under the immediate superintendence of the agent or of the contractor. It consists in evaporating, by exposure to the sun, the watery particles, which are replaced by oil of poppy-seed, to prevent the drying of the resin. The opium is then formed into cakes, and covered with the petals of the poppy; and, when sufficiently dried, it is packed in chests, with fragments of the capsules from which poppy-seeds have been thrashed out.

'This preparation, though simple, requires expert workmen able to detect the many adulterations which are practised on the raw juice. The adulteration of prepared opium is yet more difficult to discover. It has been supposed to be commonly vitiated with an extract

extract from the leaves and stalk of the poppy, and with gum of the mimosa; other foreign admixtures have been conjectured, such as cow dung, gums, and resins, of various sorts, and parched rice.

'The facility of adulterating opium, and the consequent necessity of precautions against such frauds, are circumstances which would justify the monopoly, were it even objectionable on other considerations. In a free commerce, the quality might probably be more debased to the injury of the export-trade.'

Hints which appear to us not unworthy of notice are offered in the conclusion of the work, for the improvement of the internal commerce of Bengal; for enlarging our trade to the East in the articles of sugar, cotton, silk, indigo, and saltpetre; and for encouraging the importation thence of cotton-yarn instead of cotton-wool, of starch, liquorice, ginger, arnotto, and various other articles. The author would even attempt the culture of tea in British India. It is impossible for us to decide how far these speculations are founded: but men of experience will appreciate their value. Much, no doubt, is capable of being effected; and they deserve well of their country, who endeavour by judicious advice to call forth the energies of every department of our extensive empire.

The new orthography of proper names, here introduced, the author justifies by his critical knowlege of the *Sanscrit.*

Mo-y

ART. VII. *Travels after the Peace of Amiens*, through Parts of France, Switzerland, Italy, and Germany. By J. G. Lemaistre, Esq., Author of "a Rough Sketch of Modern Paris." 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 4s. Boards. Johnson. 1806.

THESE volumes may be regarded as the sequel of the Sketch of Paris, reported in the 40th volume of our New Series, p. 377.; since they contain an account of the author's peregrinations from the day on which he quitted the French capital, till his arrival in England.—With the view of sparing many unpleasant repetitions, and of apologizing for the apparent brevity of our notice, we beg leave to offer a few general strictures, which will apply to nearly the whole of the publication.

With greater ingenuity and acuteness than seem to have fallen to his share, the author might certainly have exhibited a more striking view of the state of manners and society, and have appreciated with more distinctness and effect the beneficial and mischievous results of the great political agitations which had just convulsed the government of Europe. His observations are generally impartial, and conveyed in the plain language of a man of good sense: but, when they touch on

recent events, they seldom rise above the tone of a newspaper; and when they assume a more general complexion, they are not only deficient in sprightliness, but usually so trite and undisputed, as to add to the intrinsic heaviness of the narrative. Mr. Lemaistre, moreover, borrows and quotes, with unwearied perseverance, from authors of established popularity. Lalande and Addison contribute frequent *notifications* in the first and part of the second volume; and Lumesden's Antiquities of Rome enter into the composition of the greatest part of the third. Some sentences from Gibbon are occasionally introduced by way of variety, and even Goldsmith's Roman History is not wholly overlooked. Many pages, too, are devoted to dry catalogues of paintings and statues; and not a few to the hackneyed topics of uncomfortable accommodation, imposing innkeepers, intractable postillions, and dangerous roads. To these we may add Mrs. Lemaistre's terrors of the sea, of a dark night, or of a hilly road, which obtain their due share of tender commemoration. In vindication of the prolixity of his details on the antiquities and productions of art in Rome, the author reminds us that they cost him much trouble, and that they are the principal objects which attract travellers to that celebrated city. In reply, we have only to observe that a writer may give himself a great deal of trouble without procuring much ease or entertainment for his reader; that the task of enumerating and describing the master-pieces of sculpture and design had been already performed by able hands; and that such compilations, as those through which we have waded in the present third volume, may be executed with tolerable accuracy within the precincts of a well appointed library at home. We wish not to insinuate that this traveller is incapable of exciting interest: but he appears to have been more ambitious of spreading his materials over three volumes than of condensing them into one, or of moulding the mass into a duly attempered compound of precision and variety.

We shall now rapidly accompany him on the map; extracting, as we proceed, a few of those passages which are most calculated to gratify the general reader.

The first journey is by the way of Fontainebleau, Sens, and Dijon, to Lyons. From the heavy and cruel losses which the last mentioned city sustained, in consequence of its resistance to the new order of things, its inhabitants still retain a decided hatred to the name of republic.

Mr. Lemaistre's visit to Ferney is related with considerable interest: but we pass it over, to make room for the ensuing notices of some other distinguished particulars:

'Soon after Mr. Gibbon became an inhabitant of Lausanne, a lady of beauty and talents made such an impression on the heart of the historian, that he could not resist the impulse of love; and, falling on his knees, he declared his passion. The object of his affection heard unmoved his petition, and, in spite of the eloquence of her lover, was deaf to his entreaties. The disappointed *Damon* attempted to rise: he tried in vain: his weighty person, unaccustomed to such a position, was not so easily restored to its proper balance. The lady, fearing that some person might discover her admirer in this awkward situation, forgot her anger, and endeavoured with all her might to raise him from the ground: her strength was unequal to the task; and, after several ineffectual struggles both in the author and the lady, the latter was obliged to ring the bell, and to order her astonished servant to raise the prostrate scholar. The story, as might be expected, became public the following morning, and entertained for some days the gossiping circles of this little town.

'But, notwithstanding the general esteem which Mr. Gibbon entertained for the fair sex, and notwithstanding this striking proof of daring gallantry, I have been assured by a person who enjoyed the confidence of that distinguished man, that the historian of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, though he has frequently described in glowing colours, and perhaps in some pages with lascivious freedom, the passion of love, was a stranger to its pleasures, and that he passed his life in a state of singular and rigid chastity.

'Another story, though of a different kind, is equally characteristic. Mr. Gibbon, finding himself indisposed, sent for a physician. The doctor, judging from the appearance of his patient that his illness, which was but slight, simply arose from repletion, recommended abstinence. Three days afterwards he received a letter from the historian, couched in pressing terms, but still in well rounded sentences, requiring his immediate presence at his house. On his arrival there he found Mr. Gibbon dreadfully altered: his cheeks, usually plump, had now fallen, his complexion was sallow, and his person emaciated. The physician anxiously inquired the cause of this sudden and unexpected change. "Sir," said his learned patient, "to follow with religious exactitude the ordinances of him whom I consult as my medical adviser, is a principle from which I have never yet ventured to depart; but at this instant I am the victim of obedience, and of a doctrine which I still believe to be generally salutary. You will recollect, sir, that when last I had the honor of seeing you, you admonished me to abstain from animal food. Three days have elapsed since I received your injunctions, and during that period the only food which has passed these lips has been a beverage of watergruel: I have consequently become languid; and am now desirous of a more nutritious aliment; but, presuming not to interfere in a science which I do not understand, and having placed the direction of my health under the guidance of your professional skill, I have awaited, I will not say without impatience, the repetition of your visit: I now attend your orders." The physician, who had not called during this interval simply because he conceived Mr. Gibbon had no occasion for further advice, now rang the bell, and, instead of writing a prescription, or-

dered dinner to be instantly served. A good *bouillon* and a bottle of Burgundy soon restored the historian to health and spirits.

'The same physician advised Mr. Gibbon to take occasionally a dose of medicine. The obedient scholar, adopting with literal precision the system recommended, wrote immediately a Latin letter to his apothecary, directing that on the first of every month such a draught should be sent him as Dr. —— should direct: and accordingly, at each stated period during the rest of his life, whether he were well or ill, he received and swallowed the accustomed dose.'—

'M. Necker's estate is much diminished by the loss of his feudal rights. His present property of Coppet does not afford him a revenue of more than one hundred pounds sterling per annum. I had the honor of dining at his house, and consequently saw the interior of his family. He lives in a plain gentlemanlike manner, without parade or ostentation. His table is plentiful, but not extravagant, and his servants, though sufficient for all purposes of real use, are far from numerous. In his person, he is tall and corpulent; and his legs are increased to a great size from the effects of the gout. He still wears mourning for madame Necker, whose death he has never ceased to deplore: it is even said that he daily opens, and reads, one of a collection of letters which she left, sealed, and addressed to her husband.—His manners are grave and unaffected: his conversation has nothing very peculiar to distinguish it. Had I been taken to his house without knowing that it belonged to Mons. Necker, I certainly should not have suspected, either from the establishment, the language, or the appearance of the proprietor, that I had visited a person who in his day filled one of the most important situations of Europe, and whose name, praised by some and censured by others, must live as long as the history of France.

'His daughter, madame la barronne de Staël, on the contrary, cannot be seen, or rather heard, unnoticed. Besides a general fund of good humor, wit, and information, she possesses a talent of conversation peculiarly her own. At Paris I have frequently been asked to suppers, to "hear her talk;" and I certainly never did so without receiving much pleasure and amusement. Generally speaking, I am far from admiring this kind of society: to listen to the *good things* of any one individual, however splendid, is certainly a very dull way of passing one's time: but there is in the expressions of madame de Staël a charm which is irresistible.

'To meet two such characters as these in the country, and in a quiet private manner, was to me no trifling gratification: and the polite hospitality which we experienced added to the *agrément* of the day.

'I proceed to speak of madame de Montolieu. About six English miles from Lausanne, in the retired village of Bussigni, approached by a road which runs through an extensive wood, and on a commanding eminence, stand, side by side, two houses, not large enough to deserve the name of *châteaux*, nor yet so small as to be ranked with the other buildings of the hamlet. In these houses live madame la baronne de Montolieu, and her sister, mademoiselle de Bottens. Their habitations communicate with each other by means of their respective

spective gardens, which are laid out with much taste, and are only separated by a wicker gate.—Each sister has her separate residence; but they often dine or drink tea together; and their place of meeting during the summer months is a bower in one of these delightful gardens. Each house is furnished with much taste, yet great simplicity; and each house possesses its little library, its little *salon*, and its balcony, with a *veranda* filled with the choicest flowers. The windows of both houses enjoy the same prospect—a prospect of singular beauty; and a small rustic church, which seems placed there on purpose, stands at the bottom of their gardens, and completes the view. Whoever has read Caroline de Lichtfeld (and who has not read that interesting novel?) will remember the description of the village in which Caroline resided. This is the village—and so picturesque, that I could scarcely bring myself to believe that the scene was real.

'When Mrs. L. and myself waited on these ladies for the first time, accompanied by a gentleman of Lausanne who had the goodness to introduce us, we were informed by the female servant of madame de Montolieu, who led us through the house of her mistress (for every thing here is in character), that the latter was in the garden of her sister. We followed; and, having passed the little gate which marks the limits of their grounds, found ourselves in one of those bowers which I have before mentioned as their favorite place of *rendezvous*. Here, seated at a table covered with tea, coffee, and the fruits of the season, we were received by two females, who, though no longer young, had the remains of beauty, with all the marks of dignity, accompanied by those manners which an early intercourse with good company can alone produce.

'They welcomed us with much cordial warmth; and, desiring us to partake of their *gouter*, entered into a lively and interesting conversation. Genius, at the age of fifty, still sparkles in the countenance of madame de Montolieu; and it is impossible to be in her society without discovering that she is an extraordinary woman. Mademoiselle de Bottens is less known in the world; but her talents and her knowledge may vie with those of her sister. Their dispositions, their pursuits, and their opinions coincide so happily, that they live in this elegant retreat in the most peaceable and enviable manner; and though the greater part of their time is passed together, they yet wisely prevent the possibility of *ennui*, by having each a separate residence, to which, when tired of conversation, they can retire, and where an excellent collection of the best authors affords materials for present amusement and future discussion.

'Never did I spend an hour more agreeably than in the company of these ladies, who, though retired from the world, retain all the polish of early good breeding: to which, lively imaginations, and a perfect acquaintance with the best French, English and German writers, add so many charms, that it is impossible not to be delighted with their society.—Their hospitality, too, is unbounded; had we been their oldest friends we could not have experienced a more hearty welcome. Whenever I have called at their peaceful mansions, or whenever I have led there such of my countrymen as deserved their

notice, I have always experienced the same kindness, and the same never-failing source of interesting conversation. We went yesterday to take our leave: the sisters embraced Mrs. L. with tender affection; and in going away offered so many kind wishes for our happiness, and said so many flattering things about the guests whom they had honored with their acquaintance, that, while I have left any honest feelings, I shall remember with pleasure and gratitude the amiable inhabitants of this sequestered village.

'To conclude my subject I must add, that, if a painter wished to draw the residence of an author of romance, this would be the best spot whence he could take his design.'

As the tour of the Swiss Cantons is registered in the form of a minute and meagre diary, we may cross the Alps without farther ceremony, and stop at Turin, merely to mention that Mr. and Mrs. Lemaistre were refused permission to see the late king's and queen's apartments, because they were occupied by General and Madame Jourdan. In his progress to Genoa, the author surveyed the field of Marengo, and enters into details which we cannot quote at length, but which are well deserving of perusal. The bost-boy, who drove him, had conducted General Melas's aide-de-camp to Bonaparte's quarters, the night after the battle, and was obliged to drive the carriage over the dead bodies which completely stopped up the road. 'He said the wheels cracked every moment with the noise of broken bones.'

Genoa, Pavia, and Milan, are dissected in the usual style, without furnishing much to arrest attention. Of the scene of action at Lodi, and of the particulars of that bloody engagement, we expected an ample account: but we are thus miserably disappointed;—'After walking over the ground, and satisfying my curiosity on the subject, I returned to Lodi, and continued my journey towards Parma.'

Leaving the cumbersome descriptions of Bologna, Florence, Siena, Rome, and Naples, to professed antiquaries and amateurs, we shall be contented to quote two ludicrous instances of the ignorance of the Neapolitan noblesse:

'A duchess, whom I have seen, and who possesses one of the most splendid palaces in Naples, asked a friend of mine, who was lately a member of the house of commons, why we kept such late hours in England, and particularly why we dined when it was almost time to sup. Mr.——— answered, that one principal cause of that custom arose from the sittings of parliament, which many gentlemen were obliged to attend. "Le parlement," interrupted the lady, for she could speak a few words of French; "que c'est que le parlement? est ce une promenade, un corso? Je n'ai jamais entendu parler de cet endroit là."

'The other anecdote is this. During the late war, a Neapolitan *marquis* came into the box of a foreign minister at the theatre of San Carlos,

Carlos, and asked his excellency if he had heard the news which had just arrived Being answered in the negative, he continued with a tone of importance,—"Sir, the English fleet have blockaded Mantua!" The ambassador smiled. "You don't believe me?" rejoined the Neapolitan: "my authority is indisputable: I received the intelligence from the king himself."

The particulars relative to the court of their Sicilian majesties, of Portici and its museum, and of Herculaneum and Pompeii, may still afford gratification to many, who are strangers to the more voluminous illustrations of Southern Italy. As a specimen of the author's best manner, we transcribe his remarks on Pompeii:

'From Portici, we drove to Pompeia, or Pompeii (for it is called by both names), a distance of ten miles. The country is beautiful, and the road excellent. Our expectations, highly as they had been raised, were, on arriving, much exceeded by the reality. Pompeii is not, like Herculaneum, under ground, and only visible in parts, and by torch-light: the whole is seen in open day; and the ruins might be taken for those of a city only just destroyed. We walked through the streets, the pavement of which still exists; and the marks of the carriages which once rolled over them are clearly discerned. The streets are narrow, and have flag-stones on each side for foot-passengers. We saw two perfect amphitheatres, with the seats which the citizens of Pompeii formerly occupied; and plainly distinguished the boxes of the consuls, marked by corresponding ornaments. The public inscriptions also remain.

'We next entered the temple of Isis, and beheld the altar, the secret staircase and hiding place whence the priests pronounced the answers of the oracle, the place of slaughter, and that of sacrifice, &c. &c. We likewise visited the barracks of the soldiers, which stood at one end of the town.

'The private houses are but small, and each possesses a hall, or entrance room, in which a fountain of water constantly played. The apartments would be thought very little even in England, and in this hot climate must have been very inconvenient.

'The burying-ground of Diomedes and the villa of a rich citizen, were the next objects which drew our attention. The latter is the only edifice which conveys some idea of a large mansion.

'From the limited dimensions of the houses here (notwithstanding the paintings and other valuable articles found within them, which prove that economy cannot have occasioned this diminutive style of building); and from the circumstance of not one ancient dwelling being left at Rome, though the Coliseum, the Pantheon, and even parts of the emperors' palace, remain; I am inclined to conjecture, that a custom, originating in the spirit of republicanism, made the masters of the world avoid every appearance of ostentation in private habitations; while the utmost magnificence, luxury, and taste abounded in the theatres and forums, where the people assembled; in the mansions where the magistrates, the consuls, or the emperors resided;

in the baths devoted to public use; and in the temples of the gods. As I am no antiquary, I pretend not to give a decisive opinion on a fact with which I am so litttle acquainted; and only throw out this idea as one which has suggested itself more than once since I crossed the Alps.

'I resume the subject of Pompeii. In the cellars of the villa, several bodies were found, supposed to have been those of servants; while in another part were discovered surrounded with bags of useless gold, the carcasses of their masters. Fine paintings *al-fresco* are still visible, and some of them are on transparent marble. When water is thrown on these pictures, they appear in all the freshness of their original colouring. The subjects of some of these paintings are not very decorous according to modern ideas of delicacy; and the symbol of the god of gardening appears rather too frequently in the decoration of houses. Different signs distinguishing the different trades carried on in shops, are plainly perceived; and among them, those of a tavern-keeper, on which all sorts of refreshment are painted.

'Having given you these few particulars, I need scarcely mention how much we were gratified in strolling about a place inhabited by the Romans, and which looked as if they had ceased but yesterday to occupy it. Identifying their persons with their habitations, we seemed to see them at their games, at their devotions, in the interior of their private dwellings, at their military exercises, walking or driving about their streets, enjoying social converse, preparing feasts, or consulting the oracle of their gods: in short, in their daily occupations,—in the kitchen, the bedchamber, the cellar, the library, the market, the walk, the forum, the theatre, the camp, and the temple.

'Perhaps you will not think it amiss that I should remind you how Pompeii was destroyed, and by what circumstance discovered. It was an ancient city, supposed to have been buried, like Herculaneum, under a shower of lava, in the eruption of the year 79 of our era. It was also discovered accidentally, about the middle of the last century, by some peasants who were digging for the roots of trees near the river Sano, four leagues and a half from Naples and two and a half from the crater of Vesuvius. This town was covered over by a heap of cinders of a grey color, mixed with white stones: and these again were covered by other cinders of a darker hue. The buildings were much nearer the level of the ground than those at Herculaneum, and were indeed only a few feet from view: they were therefore cleared with much greater ease: and thence arises the circumstance, which I had before occasion to remark, that through Pompeii one can walk as in the streets of a modern city, while Herculaneum is under ground, only seen by torchlight and in detached parts.

'It is singular enough that Pompeii is itself built on heaps of cinders similar to those by which it was so long hid from view: and as vaulted subterraneous buildings have been discovered, it is more than probable that these ruins stand on those of another city. From the number of skeletons and the quantity of gold found here, it is concluded that the inhabitants were more suddenly surprised than those of Herculaneum, and that most of them were the victims of the eruption.'

We are not equally gratified when Mr. Lemaistre dwells on the circumstances of a nun taking the veil, which have been so often described, and with more touching effect, by former writers. Let us hasten back to Rome, then, where an obliging M. Fagan, a painter, who acts as English Minister, (though without appointment or salary,) introduces the author and his lady to Pope Pius VII. in the garden of the palace of Monte Cavallo. 'Mr. Fagan immediately fell on his knees, and kissed his hand. I made an inclination of the body, and performed the same ceremony. Mrs. L. also offered to kiss his hand, but he would not allow her to do so.' His holiness is described as a man of a grave and respectable appearance, very negligent of dress, but of pleasing and affable manners, and of liberal and tolerant sentiments.

A letter is devoted to some of the most remarkable objects in Venice, and another to reflections on leaving Italy. In both we perceive a striking agreement with the accounts of former tourists. From Venice, the author proceeded by Pontieba, Clagenfurt, Newmarkt, &c. to Vienna. Here we have a long and loud celebration of the Austrian family, and of the magnificent entertainments given by the state officers and foreign ministers. At page 285, an excellent anecdote is related of Joseph II.: but it is better told in Soave's *Novelle Morali*, under the title of *La Vedova Ammalata*. If we rightly recollect, it is the very first story in that justly popular collection.—With much pleasure we quote Mr. Lemaistre's honourable mention of Count and Countess P., who are not unknown to many respectable families in this island:

'Count P., a young man of noble and ancient descent, and possessed of large property in the province of Stiria, born with strong natural talents and a bias in favour of literary pursuits, went at an early age to the university of Edinburgh, in order to gratify his thirst for knowledge and his taste for letters. At the house of the professor where he lived, he became acquainted with his present lady, then miss C., niece of the late lord C Her superior mind made an indelible impression on his heart: the attachment was mutual. and he returned to Vienna a married man. As he passed through London with his bride, whom I had long known, I was first introduced to him; and in becoming acquainted with him it was impossible not to respect and esteem the thousand good qualities he possesses Meeting him now, six years afterwards, in his own country, I saw with pleasure that the enthusiastic attachment which had occasioned his marriage had rather increased than diminished. It happens, indeed, but rarely, that two persons of so much genius and literary taste are united; and this reciprocity of pursuit has no doubt contributed not a little to cement their attachment,

'They have a son who seems to have inherited the talents of his parents; while, like them, his person is slender and his health delicate.

At five years old this wonderful boy, who may fairly be considered as a prodigy, has read various books of science; is well acquainted with history and music; and is so versed in geography, for which he has a particular turn, that he has lately, without any assistance, made a map of Vienna for Mrs. L., which I mean to keep as a curiosity. I begged him yesterday to tell me how I should return to England without touching on the Hanoverian, French, or Dutch territories; and he instantly traced on the globe the only remaining road. He sits on a carpet surrounded with his books: and when the gravest and most acute remarks fall from the lips of this little person, a spirit seems to speak, rather than a child; and the fine expression which sparkles in his countenance tends to increase the idea. Among other singularities he has taught himself to write; but as his models were books, he prints his letters, and begins from the right hand instead of the left. He was born at Vienna: but having been attended from his earliest infancy by a nurse from Aberdeen, he usually speaks English, or rather Scotch—his accent being completely northern. He also understands the German and French languages; the latter of which he acquired with inconceivable facility.

'I could not help introducing to your acquaintance this estimable family and this extraordinary child. If, instead of being the son of those to whom I owe my principal pleasure at Vienna, he had been a stranger, I should equally have thought it right to mention him. He is a phenomenon: and should he live, and continue to make an equal progress in knowledge, he will rival the fame of Sir Isaac Newton. Sincerely do I hope that his excellent parents may see him attain that celebrity for which I believe him destined.'

The journey from Vienna to Dresden and Berlin presents us with little that is either novel or striking. On account of the renewal of hostilities, Mr. and Mrs. Lemaistre repaired precipitately to Tonningen, and embarked in the first packet for this country.

The English text of these volumes is tolerably correct: but we are not permitted to bestow the same compliment on the French and Italian, which are sometimes inserted without any obvious necessity. *To a thé* is a very superfluous affectation of *to tea;* and even if the Swiss phraseology had been requisite, the term should have been *goûter*. *A supper* sounds better to an English ear than *a cena:* but Mr. Lemaistre, with his usual departure from the common orthography, uniformly writes *cene*. On one occasion, we are saluted by a JETTE-*d'eau*, which, to use this gentleman's French, we think is a little *mal*-HONNETTE. His disregard of genders sometimes inclines us to suspect that he is *d'une certaine age;* and our conjecture derives confirmation from such misnomers as *cicesbeo*, *cavaliere servante*, *marquisse* and *marquisa* for *marchese*, and *santissima* Sudone, for *santissimo Sudario*. *Cesare* is changed into *Cæsare*, and even the hackneyed *cicerone* into *ciceroni*. *Lapes* occurs as the

the plural of *lapis*; and we have *candalabra* for *candelabra*, *Supurga* for *Superga*, *Onchy* for *Ouchy*, *Varsau* for *Versoy*, *Purtuis* for *Pertuis*, *Limelle* for *Limel*, &c. For these repeated acts of petty treason against the established order of grammar and orthography, we recommend a second visit to the *Casa* de *Correzione*, at Milan.

Muir.

ART. VIII. *An Essay on the Principle and Origin of Sovereign Power.* By a Dignitary of the Church. Translated from the French, with a Preface and Appendix. 8vo. pp. 298. 7s. Boards. Hatchard. 1805.

A CULPABLE freedom has been taken by the translator in the very title-page of the present work, by substituting the phrase 'Dignitary of the church' for that of "Grand Vicar," which is the literal rendering of the original. The phrase here used, moreover, might seem to convey the idea of a minister of our own protestant establishment, whereas a very different sort of person is meant, namely, a bishop's deputy in the late Gallican church.

The unfortunate priests, whom the French territory ejected on the adjoining vicinities, have ever been regarded by us as objects of commiseration; and we have always contemplated, with extreme satisfaction, the humane and generous treatment which they have experienced in this country. Whenever any of their performances, also, have been presented to our notice, we have been uniformly mindful of the privileges which belong to the unhappy; and on this ground we treated with the utmost gentleness the performance of which to our no small surprize, a translation is here given to the British public. Criticism was very slightly exercised on it, because we apprehended it to have been as little intended, as it was ill calculated for our meridian. We did not imagine that a man could be found in this country, whose taste was so perverted, and whose understanding was so beclouded, as to prefer this verbiage of a *Grand Vicaire*, to the manly sentiments and the principles of English freedom which are laid down in the writings of Somers, Locke, and Hoadley.

In his preface, a pathetic and loud outcry is made by the translator against certain phrases which were some time ago more current than at present; and which, having been used by horrid monsters as a cover for the blackest deeds, have fallen into deserved discredit. We refer to the phrases *sovereignty of the people*, *Majesty of the people*, and *the rights of man*. If by *the sovereignty of the people*, however, be meant that all power

originates from the people, that it emanates only for their benefit, and ought to be exercised for that end, let others dispute about terms: we shall not quarrel with the principle, and we shall be contented with that hypothesis till we are taught a better. If the phrase *the Majesty of the people* expresses the dignity of a great free nation in the exercise of some of its most sacred rights, we cannot discern that the term suffers by the application. As to *the Rights of Man*, writers may quibble about the meaning of words, but we never expect to meet with the lettered person who will maintain that there are no rights which belong to human nature.

It is natural that the admirer of the *Grand Vicaire* should join his principal in cavelling at some expressions of Montesquieu. That great man wished to have it understood that he entertained certain sentiments; whether his manner of intimating what they were was free and manly, is nothing to the present question; and we may safely say that no courage is displayed in arraigning him for it at this day. Though we run the risk of incurring the anathemas of the *Grand Vicaire*, and the displeasure of his admirer, we must beg leave to observe that we do not approve of introducing theological systems into the consideration of profane subjects. We will also take the liberty of remarking that, with regard to the matters in dispute between the *Grand Vicaire* and the *Président à Mortier*, the several hypotheses with regard to human nature do not in any degree affect them. What was the origin of man; whether his nature was originally corrupt, or only liable to be corrupted; whether the aspirations of virtue or the propensities of vice most preponderate in it; whether St. Augustin or Pelagius, Jansenius or Molina, Hobbes or Shaftesbury, had reason on their side, are questions which in no way affect the points at issue: on each hypothesis, the perfection or the depravity extends equally to all mankind, as well governors as governed; the governed cannot be degraded without depreciating the governors, nor can the rulers be clothed with high strained prerogatives consistently with cynical notions of our common nature. The indisputable qualities of our nature are facts to be ascertained, and are those alone about which politicians and legislators are concerned.

The Grand Vicar, who must regard the resistance at Runnymede as treason, the defection of 1688 as rebellion, and the Bill of Rights as a seditious and licentious instrument, is as might be expected an enemy of the Original Contract. Notwithstanding some fine doctines inculcated at Lincoln's Inn, of which at one time we heard much, and also in opposition to the new light of the French Divine and his English

English proselyte, we still continue to cherish the old fashioned tenet of an original contract. We are called to produce a single written agreement of the sort; and it is in vain that we say that these contracts were formed before signing and sealing came into use, when in the transactions of men much more was understood and implied than was even expressed, and when nothing was written. Yet what are the written characters of which we boast, but the implied original contracts improved, and adapted to the new situations of a people; accompanied also by the formalities which the progress of society is sure to introduce?

This master and his proselyte vehemently contend against a state of nature as rank heresy. They must admit, however, that without divine interposition there must have been such a state; and they do not shew that men may not have so far degenerated as to be reduced into it. Are the Esquimaux and Samoeids so far removed from it as to render its existence incredible? If it was only prevented by divine interposition, a complete view of the progress of society cannot be given without proceeding on the supposition of its having existed.

The translator, who appears so willing a convert to French doctrines, sometimes speaks of our liberties and our free constitution; is he, then, aware that every doctrine inculcated by his Gamaliel is inconsistent with a free limited government? Does he know that a notion very much laboured by the *Grand Vicaire*, that of representing government as growing out of parental authority, is a favourite tenet only with the advocates of simple monarchy? The authority of a parent is absolute; he legislates as well as executes; there are no powers to check and controul him in this family administration; his will alone rules. There is indeed another view of the matter, which is less favourable to despotism. Parental authority is as much a trust, as much to be controuled by a regard to the interests of the governed, and as much within defined limits, as ever civil government has been described to be by the most determined whig.

Surely this is a time as little opportune as could be chosen, for inculcating on the free-born subjects of this limited government, the benumbing and slavish doctrines of arbitrary rule, passive obedience, and non-resistance! We would not be understood, however, as being under alarm on account of any mischiefs which may arise from the arbitrary principles enforced in this publication; since these principles are not more inconsistent with our free constitution, than the method of treating them is insipid and heavy.

Jo. Art.

ART. IX. *The Life of Thomas Dermody:* interspersed with Pieces of original Poetry, many exhibiting unexampled Prematurity of genuine poetical Talent; and containing a Series of Correspondence with several eminent Characters. By James Grant Raymond. 2 Vols. 8vo. 16s. Boards. Miller. 1806.

INSTANCES of the manifestation of mental endowments at a very early age, or amid the obstacles of low birth and poverty, have frequently occurred, but have seldom experienced a propitious destiny. The untimely hand of death has either checked the promising career, or a want of common sense, common prudence, and common steadiness, has rendered abortive every effort to direct "the fated child of nature's sport." Of the latter kind is the representation placed before us in these volumes, which relate the story of a youth who was certainly gifted with more than ordinary talents, but who was doomed to support for a short period and to die in no better character than that of absolutely a *wild Irishman*.—Too much, far too much, detail is assigned to this narrative by the biographer; and we should be little inclined to follow him with any minuteness proportioned to that of his work, did we not hope that the lesson afforded by the picture may be instructively contemplated. On this principle, we shall make an abstract of Mr. Raymond's memoirs, with as much conciseness as will admit a satisfactory exhibition of the persevering endeavours of the friends of this young man to serve him, and his unconquerable propensity to thwart all their designs by his follies and his vices.

Thomas Dermody was born at Ennis in the county of Clare, on the 17th of January 1775. In this town, his father, Nicholas Dermody, had lately established himself as a Teacher of the Classics; and we are told by Mr. Raymond that he was by no means deficient in the acquirements and talents requisite to make such a situation beneficial to himself and to the public, but that his prospects were in a few years blasted by unrestrained indulgence in the most degrading intemperance. This total abandonment of personal and professional respectability was naturally followed by embarrassed circumstances, and the loss of domestic happiness. Yet in the midst of these irregularities, he appears to have bestowed a considerable degree of attention on the instruction of his son; whom we find in his *ninth* year appointed Greek and Latin Assistant in his father's school! About this time, young Dermody furnished another striking proof of premature abilities, in a monody which he composed on the death of a younger brother; and which, if it does not contain much original sentiment, is composed with a degree of

of correctness and taste not possessed by many of his later productions. It may not, however, be improper here to remark that Mr. Raymond adduces no proof whatever of its having been written at that time and in its present form.

Unhappily, even at this early period, his infant mind received so strong a taint from the example of a father, and the low companions of his excesses, that no subsequent alteration of circumstances, neither the patient expostulation of generous and disinterested friends, nor the repeated pressure of self-inflicted beggary and disease, were able to restrain him from a participation in scenes of brutal riot and debauchery. Stimulated by the *res angusta domi*, and still more by a restless spirit of adventure, in his tenth year he deserted his father's roof; and, with two shillings and a volume of Tom Jones in his pocket, he set out on foot for Dublin, a journey of 140 miles. After a few trifling adventures, which are detailed with a ludicrous minuteness, Dermody reached the Irish metropolis without money and without a friend. The novelty of his case could, however, scarcely fail of interesting the warm and generous feelings of his countrymen; and we find him successively relieved and patronized by Dr. Houlton, Mr. Owenson, Dr. Young, the Rev. G. Austin, and others, who not only rescued him from immediate want, but formed several plans to prepare him for a life of respectability: all of which, by an unparalleled course of idleness, profligacy, and ingratitude, he contrived to render abortive. The total failure of these well meant efforts may also, in a great measure, be attributed to the injudicious caresses and absurd flattery of some of his protectors; who took no pains to conceal the extravagant opinion which they had formed of his genius, as well as of his acquirements.

At the period at which his misconduct had disgusted his former patrons, he had the good fortune to be received under the protection of the late Countess Dowager of Moira:

'By the desire and at the expence of her ladyship, he was speedily furnished with suitable necessaries, and placed under the care of the learned and reverend Mr. Boyd, of Killeagh; a gentleman well known for his classic attainments, and for his elegant translation of Dante.

'In this situation he remained two years; during which time he greatly improved himself in the ancient languages, and acquired a competent knowledge of French and Italian. The countess of Moira marked with fond solicitude the progress which he made in his retirement, and derived no small pleasure from *the intelligence that conveyed to her a favourable report of his studies and improvements.* The unbounded favours heaped upon him by his generous benefactress and his benevolent instructor, were modestly received and gratefully acknowledged. But kindness could not cure his disease: it was his misfortune that the

the *maxims* of imprudence and irregularity, which had been too strongly impressed upon his youthful mind, could never be thoroughly eradicated; and with a deep concern Mr. Boyd often observed in his conduct a *deviation from propriety*. The tenderness and humanity of that gentleman, however, always triumphed over his *resentment*: and he generously concealed Dermody's foibles from his patroness; and, in the hope of his future amendment, related to her only his good qualities. This kindness had for a considerable time the desired effect; it *gave a curb to his licentious conduct, and made him often emulous and endearing*. Lady Moira too augmented her favours: she grew attached to her adopted minstrel, and honoured him with her correspondence during the whole period of his residence with Mr. Boyd.'

The solid advantage, which might have been derived from the correspondence of so kind and so enlightened a friend, may be inferred from the following extract:

'You are now at that period of life when memory is most retentive; and you ought to employ the small remaining portion of that time which you can call your own, in application to study, and the forming your mind. From Mr. Boyd's instructions you have the fullest opportunity to acquire that classic knowledge which is the solid foundation for every other science, and from his precepts and example you will learn the duty and respectability of moral virtue. You will be inclined, I know, to tell me that you are thoroughly versed in all manner of knowledge. At your age one is apt to mistake, and to appreciate our own talents and acquisitions much too highly: experience and subsequent information alone teach one how difficult, or rather laborious, it is for the greatest genius to gain extensive knowledge; and therefore humility is generally found to be an attendant on great minds. I allow you considerable facility in rhyming: nature has bestowed upon you that particular branch of ability. But if your rhymes convey not great, noble, just, and striking sentiments; or do not flow embellished by picturesque ideas, or adorned by elegance of style; your reputation as a poet will never rise above mediocrity. Be not misled by the fanciful caprice of a short period: you would not have met that flattering share of applause in England; where criticism is more rigid in its scrutiny, and unsparing in its censure. Apply yourself to the close study of elegant authors, applauded for their respective excellences, to form your taste and style; and lose not the few weeks you have to command, in negligence and inattention.'

Notwithstanding the veil which Mr. Boyd is represented as having wished to throw over the conduct of his pupil, his habitual neglect of those means of improvement with which his generous patroness had provided him, and his other irregularities, became at last too glaring not to attract her notice. Her disapprobation was, however, expressed with so much mildness, and her admonitions evinced so lively a concern for his welfare, that it might be supposed to be impossible that they should give rise to any other feelings than those of increasing

creasing gratitude and respect: but the petulant answers of this infatuated youth prove that they had served only to wound his pride and awaken his resentment. He uniformly conjures Lady Moira to release him from the slavery of regular study, and very plainly hints that he expects that her bounty should be consolidated into a round sum, to be employed as his own matchless prudence may direct. Such a request was too absurd to merit a specific answer. When he should have finished his studies with Mr. Boyd, it was Lady Moira's intention to have placed him at the University, or to have enabled him to enter the world in some other reputable manner, if his aversion to college restraints and employments still continued: but, before any plan could be digested, Dermody formed the extraordinary resolution of abruptly leaving Killeigh. That he was guilty of this desperate act of folly, we gather from the context; for, strange to say, his biographer no where positively relates the fact. The point is, however, fully decided by the sensible and dignified letter which Lady Moira addressed to him on the occasion.

Dermody now returned once more to Dublin; where a few days, spent among what Mr. Raymond somewhere calls the more expensive and elevated enjoyments of the *capital of the Empire*, soon reduced his finances to the lowest ebb. In this extremity, he was relieved by the kindness of Mr. S. White and Mr. Owenson, but derived his principal support from writing for the newspapers. He next solicited, by letter, the assistance of Mr. Grattan, Dr. Percy, and other persons distinguished by their rank and talents, by none of whom were his applications disregarded. The general interest excited by his distress and his talents was exceeded only by the activity with which he seems to have laboured afterward to deprive himself of the patronage of his friends, by the gross misapplication of those pecuniary aids which were so liberally afforded him, and by uniformly rejecting or frustrating every plan which they suggested for his advantage. The late Lord Kilwarden, then Attorney-General, actually engaged apartments for him in the University, and undertook to defray the whole of his expences there, and to 'allow him 30l. a year in order that he might appear in the world with comfort and respectability.' Were they not prepared by a remembrance of his conduct on an occasion nearly similar, our readers would find some difficulty in believing that, without stating a single objection, he refused to accept this noble offer. Mr. Raymond, indeed, attempts a sort of an apology for Dermody's conduct, but the explanation will probably be deemed more enigmatical than the fact itself; which may safely be referred to that abhorrence of

every thing connected with order and propriety, which marked the whole tenor of his life.

Shortly afterward, while his friends were forming new plans for his support, he determined, without communicating his views to any one, to "try the air of London," and wrote a farewell to Ireland in the spirit of the following extract:

'RANK nurse of nonsense; on whose thankless coast
The base weed thrives, the nobler bloom is lost;
Parent of pride and poverty, where dwell
Dullness and brogue and calumny:—farewell!
Lo! from thy land the tuneful prophet flies,
And spurns the dust behind in folly's eyes.
Merit, bright meteor, o'er thy gloomy night
Stream'd of poetic charm the loveliest light;
Dim'd by thy mist, and shorn of many a ray,
The brilliant glory bursts, and glides away,
In purer skies to shed its radiant glow,
And leaves a lonely waste of gloom below.'

Mr. Raymond justly observes that 'it was peculiarly ungrateful in Dermody to speak in these terms respecting his native country. He received in fact too much friendship, too much patronage.'—Several difficulties attended the execution of this project; and while Dermody was endeavouring to surmount them, he was introduced, by an ale-house companion, to a recruiting party, was intoxicated, and carried on board a Tender. When he was rescued by the kind interference of Mr. White, he betrayed a considerable degree of reluctance on leaving this congenial scene of vice and profligacy, and followed his deliverer with a "sullen sort of indifference." That he did not, indeed, feel greatly alarmed at the recollection of this rash step may be inferred from the circumstance of his being again discovered soon afterward in the same situation, by Mr. Emerson, who generously purchased his release. At last he enlisted in the 108th Regiment commanded by the Earl of Granard, and for a short time succeeded in concealing this transaction from his former friends: but he was recognized by Mr. Atkinson on Usher's Island, near the seat of his benefactress the Countess of Moira. It was wisely resolved, however, to let him remain for a time in this situation; from which, for his good conduct, he was advanced to the rank of serjeant, and on the 17th September 1794, embarked with his regiment for England.—'On his arrival, it was his good fortune to be placed under the immediate notice and protection of that beloved and excellent nobleman, the Earl of Moira; who, having taken the command of the army destined for the coast of France, appointed Dermody to a second-lieutenancy in the waggon-corps.

In this situation he conducted himself with much propriety, with the exception of a few irregularities (*the consequence of frequent intoxication*) which occurred while he was stationed at Southampton; and the greatest expectations were formed by his friends of his becoming in a short time a thoroughly reformed and respected character.'

During the short but eventful period of his stay on the continent, he is said to have behaved well, and to have shewn much personal courage. Mr. Raymond also states that he paid a visit to the tomb of Abelard in *Lombardy*. From the course of the British army, it appears rather improbable that Dermody should have penetrated so far as the *Convent du Paraclet*, where the ashes of this unfortunate lover are mingled with those of his Eloise: but it is still more evident that he did not find in Lombardy the tomb of a person who was buried in the interior of France.

On the return of the army and its consequent reduction, Dermody was put on the half-pay list, and by the liberality of Lord Moira was placed with a Bookseller in London. From this situation, however, his irregularities soon drove him; and his increasing excesses, and total disregard of his Lordship's expostulations, at length wearied out the kindness of his noble Patron: who, after having satisfied the demands of some creditors who had thrown him into the Fleet, 'told him that till he had seen a thorough reformation in his conduct, a seeming desire to maintain himself by his own labours, and to appear a respectable member of society,—he must, till that fortunate moment arrived (which, he feared, was far distant), withdraw his protection.'

'Those with whom he now associated were of the lowest order of society; and instead of preserving for the day of want the last liberal donation of his noble patron, he mingled in their ruinous debaucheries. Having thus dissipated his last shilling, he wandered about for some time without either much food or clothing: and at the *approach of despair* took shelter at last in a miserable garret rented by an Irish cobler in a *low and vulgar* part of the town, where the same poignant distresses were felt which in similar situations had formerly assailed him, but without the same hope or prospect of being relieved from them.'

The history of Dermody's proceedings, from the period of his leaving Ireland, appears very confused and incorrect. In January 1800 we find him making a successful application for pecuniary assistance to the writer of these memoirs; and by Mr. Raymond's advice he prepared a collection of his poems for the press, for the copy-right of which he obtained a liberal price. Soon, however, he again sunk into his former obscu-

rity, till his distresses suggested an application to Sir James Bland Burges, supported by the following Verses, which are on the whole superior to any in these volumes, and contain some passages of peculiar strength and beauty:

'To Sir J.B. Burges, Bart. on his admirable Poem of *Richard the First.*

'Lo! from the ruins of 'the mighty dead,'
Once more the English Genius lifts his head;
Britain once more with partial transport views
Th' appropriate honours of the epic muse.
Oft has the fervour of her genuine flame
Illum'd the Theban or the Spartan name;
Lending, with liberal grace, to chiefs unknown
Immortal wreaths, and laurels not their own:
While the brave worthies of this favour'd clime
Lay clouded in some legendary rhyme,
Whose quaint inanity presum'd to raise
A lasting theme in mockery of praise.
Not so, with unaffected splendour bright,
Meets thy First Richard our enraptur'd sight;
Emerging from oblivion's central shade,
In all the majesty of song array'd.
Oh would the heirs of pomp, the gifted great,
So charm the hours of dignified retreat;
So, by soft sanction, tenderly impart
A new-born lustre to the tuneful art;
Still might I hope, intent on high emprize,
To see a Dorset or a Sydney rise.—
The hope is vain: that gen'rous glow divine
Which breathes in harmony from breasts like thine;
That soaring spirit which distains to creep
Round the smooth base of the Parnassian steep,
But, hurried with the whirlwind's force along,
Grasps the rough summit of sublimest song;
Where shall I seek 'mid the degen'rate band
Who slight the beauties of their native land;
For foreign flow'rs of short duration sigh,
And scorn those hardy blooms that never die,
Nurs'd by the rigours of our northern sky?
To thy auspicious star we fondly turn,
Whose steadier rays aloft distinctly burn:
To light the minstrel through life's stormy main,
Or guide the banish'd muses back again;
Here, safe at length, to rest their pilgrim feet,
And claim their old hereditary seat.'

Such an appeal was not to be resisted. Sir James invited Dermody to his house, made him a present of ten pounds, and engaged to promote a subscription for any work that he might undertake. Soon afterward he brought some poems to Sir James, who opened a subscription for their publication; and who also applied on his behalf to the Literary Fund, from which,

which, it afterward appears, he had already received considerable assistance. A farther benefaction was, however, issued for the purpose of providing him with decent clothing.

'As he was now well drest, apparently relieved from his embarrassments, and with favourable prospects opening to him, his friends entertained a hope that he would have discretion enough to make a good use of his prosperity. But this expectation was very short-lived. Within a week after he had appeared in his new clothes, as sir James Burges was sitting in the evening in his library, he heard a loud noise and a violent altercation in his hall. On going out to inquire the cause of such an unusual tumult, he found Dermody struggling with two of his servants, who endeavoured to prevent him from forcing his way into the house. And indeed his appearance was such as completely to justify them: for he was literally in rags, was covered with mud (in which it appeared that he had been just rolled), had a black eye, and a fresh wound on his head from which the blood trickled down his breast; and, to crown the whole, was so drunk as to be hardly able to stand or speak. As soon as sir James could recognise him, he released him from the hands of his servants; and conducting him into his library, inquired the reason of his appearing in such a condition. Dermody accounted for his being so ill-drest, by saying that he had pawned his new clothes. As for his dirt and wounds, he said he had been arrested and carried to a spunging-house; where he had been drinking with the bailiffs, and writing a poem which he wished to take to sir James, but they would not let him: so that he had watched his opportunity, and slipped off: but had been overtaken by them, and obliged to fight his way; in which, though with some damage, he had been ultimately successful. He then gave sir James his poem, which proved to be his *Extravaganza*: the uncommon beauty and elegance of which has been universally acknowledged; and which, though it might add fresh honour to the first writer in our language, was thus produced in the midst of intemperance and brutality, by a wretch in a state of intoxication, and lost to every feeling of decency or shame. As he was not at that time in a condition to be argued with, sir James advised him to return for the present to the spunging-house, and promised to discharge his debt the next morning.'—

'It was not, however, a very easy matter to satisfy Dermody's expectations. The more he received, the more earnest he became in his solicitations for pecuniary assistance.'

After several peremptory, but ineffectual demands, Dermody resorted to the expedient of *drawing* on Sir James for money, which produced an expostulatory letter. To this he returned a very unsatisfactory answer; and Sir James, as might be expected, felt little desirous of continuing the correspondence: but our Hero was not so easily repulsed; and we are presented with a long series of letters which, from the tone of importunity and insolence in which they are written, and their inelegance and incorrectness as epistolary compositions, could not

have been particularly gratifying to the person to whom they were addressed. While Sir James declined all direct communication with Dermody, he frequently supported the applications of Mr. Pye and others to the Literary Fund on his behalf. In the course of twelve months, he received upwards of 50l. from this beneficent institution: but, on another solicitation in October 1801, the Society, displeased at the improper use which he had made of their former bounty, resolved that the farther consideration of his case should be referred *sine die*. His career of vice and folly had now nearly reached its close: his constitution was undermined by intemperance; and a painful asthmatic complaint was followed by symptoms of a decline, which increased so rapidly, that in June 1802 it was supposed he could live only a few days. Under these distressing circumstances, Dermody engaged Mr. Raymond to write to Lord Moira, Sir James Burges, and Mr. Smith, each of whom immediately sent him 10l. The receipt of this well timed assistance revived his spirits, and for some time his friends entertained hopes of his recovery: but the favourable appearances proved delusive, and the symptoms of the disorder became daily more alarming. In this deplorable state, he fled from his lodgings to avoid demands which he could not satisfy, and took shelter in a miserable cottage near the village of Sydenham in Kent. From this obscure retreat, he wrote to Mr. Raymond, who on the 15th of July went to visit him, and found Dermody in the last stage of the disorder, and in want not only of the most common comforts but even of necessaries. He expired the same evening, at the age of 26 years and 6 months.

Thus perished, the victim of inveterate habits of debauchery, a young man whose talents, supported as they were by high patronage, might have been supposed to insure independence if not celebrity to their possessor. The example may not be without its use to those who, in circumstances somewhat similar, are tempted to throw off the salutary restraints of religion and morality; and since his ruin may in some degree be ascribed to the indiscreet conduct of his early protectors, he may with great propriety be set up as a beacon to all future Patrons of forward and shewy talents in the lower order of society. In this manner, some compensation may be made for that large share of pecuniary relief, of which, on many occasions, he must have deprived the less clamorous but not less deserving applicant. That the public in general will read these pages with much interest is by no means equally certain.

Dermody possessed a lively and active imagination, and expressed himself with great ease and sometimes with sweetness, but

but his language is frequently incorrect. Of merits of a higher class, we discern few traces. He wanted the taste and observation which are so necessary to a just and striking delineation of natural objects. He appears to have possessed little acquaintance with the secret workings of the human heart; and we look in vain for that rich and creative fancy which is sometimes seen to atone for the absence of these inexhaustible sources of poetical beauty and sublimity. Dazzled by the glare of early acquirements, his Patrons do not seem to have been very careful in examining those marks, by which alone it is possible to discriminate between the first imperfect efforts of real genius, and the premature developement of talents but little removed from mediocrity. A cultivated mind and matured judgment would probably have intitled Dermody to a respectable station in the literary world: but, had even the hours wasted in dissipation been devoted to these valuable objects, we see no reason for supposing, from the numerous specimens introduced into the present volumes, that the very sanguine expectations of his friends would have been ultimately realized.

After the specimens which we have had occasion to insert, it will be needless to enter into any particular investigation of Mr. Raymond's language and mode of reasoning. *Mole ruat suâ.*

J. Mans. jun.

Art. X. ΓΕΩΠΟΝΙΚΑ. *Agricultural Pursuits.* Translated from the Greek, by the Rev. T. Owen, M. A., of Queen's College, Oxford, and Rector of Upton Scudamore, Wilts. 2 Vols. 8vo. 15s. Boards. White. 1805.

In defiance of our respect for the antients, we cannot advert either to their religion or their physics without indulging a very contemptuous smile. Their notions of natural philosophy stood on no solid foundation, and ideas of charms and of planetary influence directed their most important pursuits. When the Elder Pliny recommends that the dust, in which a mule has rolled, should be sprinkled on persons who are violently in love, as a sovereign cure for amatory ardor, and gravely tells us that snakes are sometimes produced from the human medulla, with much other stuff of the like kind, we may pronounce that his cotemporaries were very credulous, that their best writers were more intent on copying than in examining, and that the science of experimental philosophy was scarcely cultivated among them. In the province of agriculture, facts, we should think, would prevail: but even here the people were governed chiefly by superstitious fancies. Hence what may be called the experience

of the antients cannot be consulted by the moderns with much advantage.

It may gratify the curiosity of some readers to peruse these *Geoponica*, or Agricultural receipts, or memoranda of old times: but they who examine them with the hope of acquiring hints for practice will be greatly disappointed. We are surprised that Mr. Owen could have had patience to translate the dull and unprofitable reveries contained in these volumes. Rarely have we been more completely tired by any work; and we think that he would have fully satisfied our philosophical agriculturists, by a fasciculus from this collection of antient *wisdom* and experience. These *Geoponica*, or select precepts of Agriculture, will be found to consist of the receipts and directions taken from various authors concerning Prognostics of the weather;—Prescience of Events;—finding water;—proving soils and seeds;—seasons of sowing and reaping;—preserving corn and making bread;—what ought to be done in each month;—concerning the culture of different grapes, making and preparing various sorts of wine;—concerning olives and the extraction and preparation of oil;—concerning the garden, and the raising and grafting different fruit trees, shrubs, evergreens, and sweet scented flowers;—instructions relating to what is sown and planted every month according to the climate of Constantinople, including the cultivation of esculent vegetables;—concerning reptiles and insects;—concerning poultry;—concerning natural sympathy and antipathy;—concerning horses, cows, sheep, dogs;—and concerning the propagation, baits, and taking of fish.

In the proem, this multifarious compilation is dedicated or addressed to Constantine, supposed by the translator to be Constantius Porphyro-Genitus, who flourished in the tenth century, and employed men to make extracts from the writings of antiquity, with more industry than judgment. Of the real merit of this work, which is divided into 20 books, our readers will be able to judge by a few specimens.

We shall first copy a part of the section in the first book 'concerning the rising of the Dog-star, and the prescience of occurrences from it:'

'The rising of the dog-star is on the twentieth day of the month of July. You must then observe in what part the moon is when this rises. If it rises, the moon being in Leo, there will be an abundant crop of corn, and plenty of oil and wine, and all provisions will be cheap. There will be tumults and slaughter, and the appearance of a king, and uncertain weather; and one nation will invade another, and there will be earthquakes and inundations: but being in Virgo, there will be abundance of rain, joy, death of women in childbed; slaves and four-footed beasts will be cheap. Being in Libra, there will be the

the removal of a tyrant, four-footed beasts will be easily procured, and there will be tumults among the populace, scarcity of oil, and blight among the corn, but plenty of wine and of nuts. Being in Scorpio, there will be discontent in the priesthood, and destruction to the apiary, and pestilential havock: when it is in Sagittarius, there will be a plentiful year, and many showers, and abundance of corn, and joy to the human race, but havock in the herd, and a plentiful increase of the feathered tribe: if it rises when the Moon is in Capricorn, there will be marching of armies, and many showers, and abundance of corn, and wine, and oil; all things will be cheap: if it rises when the same luminary is in Aquarius, the dissolution of a tyrant will happen, the wheat will be injured; there will be an incursion of locusts, and little rain, and pestilential diseases: if it rises when the Moon is in Pisces there will be plenty of rain, and destruction to the feathered race; and there will be plenty of wine and corn, but disease among the human race.'

A writer who attributes such effects to sidereal influence may be supposed to believe in charms and amulets. He appears, indeed, in one place to discountenance reliance on them: but the frequency of ridiculous directions shews the unphilosophical state of his mind. He gives us Pythagoras's reason for not eating beans, viz. 'because there are found in the flowers of this plant inauspicious letters:' he tells us that 'pulse, which in sowing touches the horns of an ox, becomes barren;' and he directs the farmer, in order to eradicate the lion's tail, or *leonurus*, 'to take five shells, and to describe on them with chalk, or with some other white pigment, Hercules suffocating the lion, and to set them at the four corners and in the middle of the ground.' This is a heathenish kind of recipe; and in another place we are presented with one equally curious, though not subject to such an objection. It respects the prevention of wine from turning sour:

'An efficacious Inscription, that the Wine may not turn.

'The wine cannot possibly turn, if you inscribe on the vessel or on the casks these pious words: "Taste, and see that Jehovah is good;"* and you will do right if you inscribe this on an apple, and lay it in the wine.'

Again, however, he returns to the charms of the Greeks; and the following is given as a rule to prevent inebriation:

'That a Person drinking much Wine may not be inebriated.

'Having roasted the lights of a goat, eat them, or, when fasting, eat five or seven bitter almonds, or eat raw cabbage, and you will not be inebriated. A person that drinks likewise will not be in liquor,

* The Hebrew passage from Ps. xxxii. is given at the bottom of the page, but it is incorrect.

if

if he is crowned with *chamæpitys*; or if, in drinking the first cup, he repeats this verse of Homer:

"Thrice thunder'd Jupiter from Ida's heights."

Modern agriculturists have made various efforts to assign the cause of Blight in wheat: but none of them have stumbled on the reason given by an antient in this work. We transcribe it for the information of those whom it may concern, as well as the easy *remedy* against this disease:

'It is proper to know that all things are principally affected by the blight when the moon is full, and particularly wheat, because the moon being then very warm, and having a degree of humidity, putrefies the grain in the night. Some indeed having cut the fish *silurus* in pieces, burn it, accordingly to the wind, making a smell over every part of the ground. There is likewise a certain antipathy, if the skin of a seal is perforated and stretched round a sieve, and the seed is caused to pass through the sieve, and the ground is sown. This same thing likewise precludes hail from falling, affording relief by some natural antipathy.'

Much is detailed respecting the culture of the vine, including the *ablaqueation*, or laying bare the roots by digging; the *pampination*, or taking off superfluous buds and shoots; and different kinds of grafting. Directions are offered for grafting the vine on the myrtle and on the cherry, and for producing grapes without kernels by simply removing the pith * out of the shoot that is planted: but we apprehend that these and many other rules here given are not founded on practice. We are told in a subsequent page that, if beet-root be laid in wine, it will be vinegar in three hours. (p. 260.)

From the account of the wines of the antients, they appear to us to have been chiefly strange and vile mixtures. We shall transcribe two recipes:

'The making of Aminean Wine.

'Some, pouring wines of Aminean flavour into a vessel which had Italian wine, bury it in a place under the open air: and some throw in a few bitter almonds, and a little of the Indian leaf, and a little defrutum: and others put into seven amphoræ two drams of hepatic aloes and of cyperus, or of other aloes, three drams of amomum, four drams of costus, four drams of the Indian leaf, nine drams of melliot, two drams of Indian nard, three drams of cinnamon wood. Some also add four drams of each of these, of myrrh, cassia, crocus. Some use the sweet-scented calamus instead of myrrh.'—

* Peaches without stones are said to be raised in the same way, and with equal truth.

'The

'The Preparation of Coan Wine.

'Some boil three parts of must and one of sea water into a third of the quantity; but others mix with two measures of white wine one cotyla of salt, three cotylæ of sapa, one cotyla of must, one cotyla of flour of orobus, one hundred drams of melliot, sixteen drams of Celtic nard.'

As a fit liquor for women, a mixture of oil, wine, and pounded iris is recommended.

Will it be credited that 'the white poplar, being grafted or inoculated from the mulberry-tree, produces white mulberries?'

We cannot withhold from our readers the following prescription, with the translator's note:

'To make a Barren Tree bear Fruit.

'Having * girt and tucked up your clothes, and having taken an axe or a hatchet, approach the tree with resentment, wishing to cut it down: but when any body comes to you, and deprecates the cutting of it, as if responsible for a future crop, seem to be persuaded, and to spare the tree, and it will bear fruit well in future.'

A hollow stone, with a text of scripture inscribed on it, (Ps. i. 3.) is recommended to be hung on a tree to prevent the casting of its fruit.—We shall not specify other *charming* remedies against the maladies of the vegetable world: but, if the reader be not satisfied with those which we have adduced, he will find many more of the same nature by recurring to the production itself. That our medical gentlemen, however, may not be offended with us by total neglect, we shall furnish them with a recipe for the cure of a fever; which, we are confident, was never recommended by any of the College of Physicians: 'If you lay cucumbers of proportionable length near a sucking child, when he is feverish and asleep, he will be soon cured, for all the heat is attracted by the cucumbers.'

In the book concerning natural sympathy and antipathy, the subject of Bees is detailed, and a full account is given 'how bees may be produced from an ox, which is called Bongone.'

'* This opinion relating to the fructification of trees is of remote antiquity, which came from the east, and to which the parable of the fig-tree seems to bear some analogy—*Luke,* xiii. 6. There is a passage in an Arabic writer, which shews that it was not unknown in the east. It relates to the fructification of the palm-tree, and runs thus: "The master, armed with an axe, approaching the tree with an attendant, says, I will cut down this tree, because it bears no fruit. Abstain, I pray, says the other; it will produce fruit this year. The master indeed without delay strikes it, but with the axe inverted: but the other preventing him, says, Spare it, I pray; I am responsible for it. Then the tree "becomes fruitful"—*Ibn Alvard.*'

It is impossible to resist transcribing this glaring evidence of antient folly, credulity, and cruelty:

'Let there be a building ten cubits high, and of the same number of cubits in breadth and of equal dimensions at all sides, and let there be one entrance, and four windows made in it, one window in each wall: then bring into this building a bullock, two years and a half old, fleshy, very fat: set to work a number of young men, and let them powerfully beat it, and by beating, let them kill it with their bludgeons, pervading the bones along with the flesh: but let them take care that they do not make the beast bloody (for the bee is not produced from blood), not falling on with so much violence with the first blows: and let all the apertures be stopped with clean and fine cloths dipped in pitch; as the eyes, and the mouth, and such as are formed by nature for necessary evacuation: then, having scattered a good quantity of thyme, and having laid the bullock on it, let them immediately go out of the house, and let them cover the door and the windows with strong clay, that there may be no entrance nor vent to the air, nor to the wind. The third week it is proper to open the building on all sides that the light and pure air may be admitted, except the side where a strong wind blows in; for if this be the case, it is proper to keep the windows shut on this side: but when the materials seem to be animated, having attracted a sufficient portion of air, it is again proper to secure the building with clay according to the former method: having then opened it on the eleventh day after this period, you will find it full of bees crowded in clusters on each other, and the horns, and the bones, and the hair, and nothing else of the bullock left. They say indeed that the kings are produced from the brain, but the other bees from the flesh. Kings are also produced from the spinal marrow. But those that are produced from the brain are superior to the others in size and beauty, and in strength. But the first change and transformation of the flesh into living creatures, and as it were a conception and birth, you will thus know; for when the building is opened, you will see things small and white in appearance, and like one another, and not perfect, nor yet such as may be properly called living animals, in great number about the bullock, all indeed motionless, but gradually increasing in size. You may then see the form of the wings with their divisions, and the bees assuming their proper colour, and seated around their king, and flying, but to a small distance, and with tremulous wings, on account of their want of practice, and the debility of their members.'

It is unnecessary, after these extracts, to discuss the merit of the translator; we can only lament that he has so unprofitably employed his time.

Mo-y.

ART.

ART. XI. *A Compendious View of Universal History*, from the Year 1753 to the Treaty of Amiens in 1802: with Notes to verify or elucidate the Passages to which they refer. By Charles Mayo, LL. B., Rector of Beching Stoke and Huish, in the County of Wilts. 4 Vols. 4to. 5l. 5s. Boards. Longman and Co.

No particular arrangement, perhaps, can be assigned to a history, which has not its exclusive advantages. While events are yet recent, and only the outlines of them can be communicated, the form of annals seems eligible; and, when time has thrown over them a clearer light, a more systematic plan becomes preferable. It may be said of annals that they are more easily consulted, and are especially suited to the tyro; whereas a fuller method is more instructive, and better adapted for the grand functions which have ever been considered as within the province of history. It is justly observed by Mr. Mayo that, during the period which his narrative embraces, the divided state of the population of the globe, and the new relations and interests created by commerce, have very much enlarged the sphere and enhanced the importance of history; and he is not less founded when he asserts that it is distinguished by revolutions and changes of unusual magnitude, and of the very highest moment. It records the particulars of the prosperous war of 1756 under the auspices of the first William Pitt, and the fatal intrigues that robbed Britain of the benefits which his commanding genius would have reaped from it; it unravels the system which severed the colonies from the mother country; and it describes the conduct that Britain, under the late Premier, pursued with regard to the grand convulsion which has changed the face of Europe, and which seems as yet by no means to have subsided.

For a narrative so general as that which is before us, the dissection of time into annual periods is not in our judgment a happy method; the portions being too minute, and the transitions too frequent. We are of opinion that the production would not have been less valuable, if the author had treated more briefly of the affairs of Great Britain, and more at length of those of other countries; and if the contents of each paragraph had been indicated in the margin with which these volumes are largely furnished, the utility of the work as a book of reference would have been materially increased.

In the accounts which the author gives of the transactions of foreign countries, he professes to omit no material event, no measure of government, no transaction worthy of notice; and he acts fairly with his readers by referring under each particular

cular to his original. If the sources are frequently of an ordinary sort, yet, the information being general, we have reason to believe that it is on the whole not inaccurate. To write the modern history of a foreign state, in the best manner, requires that the author should have been for a considerable time domesticated in it; without which advantage, the outline of the piece is never properly filled up, limits are not sufficiently defined, and objects are but dimly portrayed. Of such means, however, as were within his reach, Mr. Mayo appears to have made fair use; and of two leading requisites in an historian, he seems to be in a considerable degree possessed, namely a mind free from bias, and a judgment that can properly appreciate events. In the part of his narrative which respects his own country, he takes every occasion of impressing his readers with the value of the blessings of our free government on the one hand, and of rousing detestation against licentiousness and anarchy on the other.

The turn of the author may be collected from the subsequent passage, which occurs in his account of events in France during the year 1753:

'The history of France at the commencement of this period deserves our particular attention, not so much because its occurrences are in themselves important, as because they make us acquainted with the state of the public mind, and lead us to discover the causes of that signal revolution which has since taken place in this kingdom.—That revolution has been productive of events so tragical, of crimes so flagitious, that it is with difficulty that the present generation, who have still in their imagination the scaffold stained with the blood of a monarch distinguished for moral virtue and goodness of heart, can review the transactions relating to it with that dispassionate coolness which is essential to the attainment of truth. But such a fair representation of facts as may enable posterity to form a right judgment of them is the first object of history. And therefore however we may detest the actors in these scenes and abhor their villanies, yet it is our duty to represent the events which led to the revolution, as well as those by which it was accomplished, with candor and impartiality.'

The very next passage shews him to be endued with a discernment that was highly necessary to qualify him for the province which he has undertaken:

'Without tracing this event to its origin, without investigating the *circumstances* in the formation of the French monarchy which led to the establishment of absolute power in the crown, or those accidental *circumstances* which enabled the politic Lewis the eleventh to lay the foundation of a military government, which favoured cardinals Richelieu and Mazarine in carrying on the design, and Lewis the fourteenth in completing it, we may discover some of the secondary sources of those bitter waters which have since overflowed this country in

in the present *circumstances* of the French court.—When madame de Pompadour who had long been the favourite of Lewis the fifteenth, perceived the influence of her personal charms declining, she found it expedient to support herself by becoming a purveyor of amusement to her royal paramour, and by insinuating herself into his confidence in matters of state. In this her most sanguine expectations were gratified: but in the gratification of them the manners of the court were disgraced by profligacy, the government was involved in debt, and the state was brought into discredit by the sacrifice of every other consideration to the personal interests of herself and her adherents.—One of the first trials of her ascendancy was made by the dismission of monsieur de Maurepas from the marine department, in which he had presided many years with credit, and the appointment of monsieur de Rouillé a creature of her own, who was totally unacquainted with maritime affairs, as his successor.—Many other instances might be brought to prove that the councils of France were, at this period, influenced by a favourite who was neither capable of judging of its true interests, nor concerned to promote them; who, by her example, countenanced dissoluteness in the court; and who eventually became an agent in involving Europe again in hostilities, at a time when every French patriot was desirous of preserving peace, as the only mean of recovering the kingdom from the ruinous effects of that war from which it had been lately extricated.

'Nor was this the only injury she *did* the state. The vast expence of her buildings, and of that continual succession of amusements by which she made it her business to prevent the king's mind from falling into the melancholy to which it was inclined, contributed to that financial embarrassment which was severely felt even after the close of the war.—To these extravagances the aged duke de Noailles, Lewis's faithful counsellor, alluded, when he desired his sovereign to compare his expenditure with that of Lewis the fourteenth; and entreated him to retrench the expences of his court, in compliance with the ardent prayers of his people. His salutary advice was disregarded, as not suited to the taste of so dissolute a court. And the taxes were not only continued, but were rendered more galling by the arbitrary manner in which they were imposed and the abuses practised in collecting them.—The French nation, awed by the power of Lewis the fourteenth, flattered by his triumphs, and reverencing his manly, dignified character, seem to have submitted to his tyranny without a thought of throwing off their shackles. But when the sceptre had passed into the hand of a sovereign without talents for government, without energy, without dignity of character; when that feeble hand was seen to be directed by a courtesan raised up from the dregs of the people; when the nation felt that the power thus unworthily enjoyed was employed for the purpose of enforcing immoderate taxation, and that whilst they were still burthened with taxes, imposed for carrying on the late war, the national treasures were lavished on her minions or squandered in new-fangled luxuries of her invention, they disdained the authority to which they yet paid a forced obedience, and the spirit of revolt began soon to discover itself among them.

'Her

'Her influence was equally prejudicial to the foreign affairs of the kingdom. We shall soon see her employed by the Austrian minister as an instrument to make her sovereign the dupe of the empress queen's policy: we shall see a treaty brought about by her means which made a total change in the balance of Europe; which, by freeing Austria from that salutary restraint which the alliance of France and Prussia had laid her under, first relieved her from her embarrassments and afterwards enabled her, by her wise policy, to supersede the house of Bourbon in that weight which its greatest monarchs had given it in the European system.'

Equally judicious is Mr. M.'s account of the religious animosities which disgraced the reign of the same monarch, and of the connection of these ridiculous contentions with the disputes between the throne and the tribunals, which ultimately led to the subversion of the antient government.—His very dispassionate spirit will be collected from his statements relative to matters which excited great heat in our own country at the time of their occurrence, and which has scarcely disappeared at the present moment:

'The important revolutions which were now (1790) taking place in France, where the old government was completely thrown from its base, and not a wreck of the former feudal system was suffered to remain that might remind the people of its existence, could not but be viewed with anxiety by this and other neighbouring nations: some men, actuated by the love of novelty or an aversion to legal restraint, hailed the approach of those days when mankind would be blessed with the full enjoyment of liberty: others, from interested motives, were desirous of any change that might afford them an opportunity of improving their condition or repairing their broken fortunes: others, affrighted by the progress of principles which gave to the people a power of new modelling their forms of government if not correspondent to their wishes, were carried by their dread of anarchy into the contrary extreme; whilst the sincere well-wishers to the established constitution looked forward with extreme solicitude to the final issue of things; apprehensive lest that glorious system of government under which the nation had so long flourished might be undermined in its principles by designing men, or might go to ruin amidst this crash of empire.—Those who considered France as the rival of our commercial prosperity and political grandeur, who had observed with concern the struggles made by that kingdom to augment its naval force, even during its decline, and thought, with Mr. Burke, that the works which had been constructed at Cherburg, for the security of that fortress and the accommodation of their navy, were more vast in their design than the pyramids of Egypt, and as threatening perpetual molestation to the British coasts, felt their apprehensions for a moment calmed, when they saw that powerful rival disabled from contending with us by her domestic dissension.—On the other hand, we find a numerous society in the metropolis at this time congratulating the national assembly of France on the event of "the late glorious

revolution" in that country.—The reader, from the contemplation of facts, will be best enabled to judge of the motives and the merits of the parties which divided the kingdom during this turbulent period.

'The contrast of sentiment on the subject of this momentous revolution was manifested, on the meeting of parliament, in the speeches of several members of the lower house.—In a debate on the army estimates, Mr. Burke contrasted the prosperity and security enjoyed in this country with the fallen and disordered state of France; and painted in glowing colours the disastrous consequences of the revolution. "In the last age," said he, "we were in danger of being entangled, by the example of France, in the net of a relentless despotism; a despotism, indeed, proudly arrayed in manners, gallantry, splendour, magnificence, and even covered over with the imposing robes of science and literature. Our present danger, from the example of a people whose character knows no medium, is, with regard to government, a danger from licentious violence; a danger of being led, from admiration, to imitate the excesses of an unbridled, plundering, ferocious, bloody, and tyrannical democracy, of a people whose government is anarchy, and whose religion is atheism."—Mr. Fox and Mr. Sheridan agreed with Mr. Burke in deploring the miseries of France, and execrating the acts of barbarous outrage perpetrated in that country: but these they imputed to the old despotic government, not to the efforts by which the people had violently relieved themselves from it.—Mr. Pitt and other members expressed their warm approbation of Mr. Burke's sentiments: and the estimates of the army were then voted by the house.

'One of the first objects which engaged the attention of parliament was the repeal of the test act.—The dissenters, who were much disappointed by the issue of Mr. Beaufoy's motion, encouraged by the small majority against it, had been indefatigable in their labours to strengthen their party, and were still sanguine in their hopes of success. Their cause was now espoused by an abler patron: Mr. Fox, moving the repeal, recommended the measure as a mean of promoting peace. "Persecution," said he, "is a bond of union. Remove the barriers which separate the dissenters from the body of the citizens, and, in their collective capacity, they would be no longer known. Men unite to resist oppression: but, cease to oppress, and the union is dissolved."—The premier opposed the motion upon the grounds of the propriety of investing the executive power with a right of judging of the fitness or unfitness of the persons who are to occupy public stations. He insisted on the expediency of a church establishment: that toleration, not equality, should be enjoyed by dissenters.—And he enforced his sentiments by adverting to the present conduct of the dissenters: "who, at the moment when they were reprobating a test, had discovered an intention of forming associations throughout the country, for the purpose of putting the members of that house to a test, and of resolving to judge of their fitness to fill their seats by their votes on this single question."—He was followed by Mr. Burke: who proved the justness of the premier's remarks by citations from the writings of some dissenting divines upon the subject of ecclesiastical establishments, of a tendency dangerous to the constitu-

tion —The result was, that the motion was rejected by a majority of 294 to 105 votes.'

The author thus remarks on the origin of the late war, after having stated the dismission of Chauvelin, the French declaration of hostilities, &c. :

'From these facts we are left to form our judgment on the merits of that most fatal contest, in which nearly all the powers in Europe were involved. In doing this we ought, however, in justice to Great Britain, carefully to distinguish between that war which originated in an invasion of France, which, by enraging the French nation, occasioned the dreadful calamities that ensued, and afforded the republicans the opportunity they desired of abolishing monarchy in that country, in regard to which the British crown observed a strict neutrality notwithstanding the ingratitude it had experienced from *regenerated* France, and the present war to which this state may be said virtually to have challenged France by the dismission of her minister.—The die was now cast Great Britain, preferring open hostilities to a struggle against the insidous craft of a secret enemy, endeavouring to undermine her constitution by the propagation of democratic principles, became from this instant the leading member of a coalition for the maintenance of the rights of the neighbouring states, and the support of established governments, against a power which had avowed an intention to subvert them ; whose convention had with unanimous voice declared their hatred to kings, and had shewn the most rancorous enmity towards the government of this kingdom.

'When his majesty's message, announcing a declaration of war on the part of France, was delivered to the house of commons by Mr. secretary Dundas, and to the house of peers by the marquis of Stafford, warm debates ensued on the merits of the measures of administration which had given occasion to it. But so prevalent was the opinion that the French government, although it had been led by policy to act the part of a pacific disposition, was resolutely hostile to us, and that war, with all the evils which it brings with it, was preferable to a peace preserved at the expence of our own safety and the general welfare, that the addresses on it were voted in both houses without a division.—How happy would it have been for this kingdom had that generous ardour which determined the parliament to vote for warlike measures, and disposed the nation to support the state with their lives and property, been confined to the defence of our own island and the preservation of our glorious constitution ! Had not an ambition to become the protectors of our own independency and that of all Europe led us to confederate ourselves with powers that dishonoured our cause, exhausted our treasury, and afterwards basely deserted us ; thus teaching us again by dear bought experience that a rich state will ever, in war, be the dupe of the needy ; and that jealousy of its prosperity is a permanent cause of enmity which operates with equal force on its allies as well as its enemies.'*

Instances

'* Never was this more remarkably exemplified than in the English history during the period now before us. Though it is notorious that

Instances of verbosity and inaccuracy of language repeatedly occur in these pages: but the style is uniformly easy, and the performance on the whole is agreeable and inviting. The moderation and temper which pervade the whole work are deserving of much praise; and though the accounts of some of the foreign states are too brief, yet, on a fair examination of its merits and defects, we have no hesitation in declaring our opinion, that it will form a valuable acquisition to those who are desirous of being well acquainted with the modern transactions of the world. Jo.

ART. XII. *Modern London;* being the History and present State of the British Metropolis. Illustrated with numerous Copperplates. 4to. pp. 571. 3l. 3s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1805.

FOREIGNERS, and other persons who are but slightly acquainted with the Capital of the British Empire, must gladly receive a work which proceeds on the plan of the present volume, if it be even tolerably well executed. In an analytical view of a Metropolis, we expect to find displayed the structure of the government, and the traits of the national character; and we look for information not less profitable than amusing. Duly to execute such a performance, however, time and patience, and no ordinary attainments, are requisite. In the publication before us, most if not all of the proper heads are considered. It commences with a history of the Metropolis; and then follow a description of it, a sketch of its manners and police, accounts of its various institutions, commerce, its public buildings, places of entertainment, monuments, and exhibitions, and the state of literature and the arts.

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it is by her excellent constitution, and the consequent spirit of industry, exerting itself in agriculture, manufactures and commerce, that Great Britain maintains her station among the principal states of Europe, and is enabled at this instant to preserve the balance against the overwhelming power of France, though it has been proved, that what is invidiously termed a monopoly of commerce is so far from being detrimental to other nations, when considered in their individual capacity, that it is highly benefical to them, that it facilitates the supply of many useful articles of life to them, and that, where there is so great a competition among the merchants even of the same nation, monopoly is impracticable, yet the English have been charged, by nations less free, less industrious, and consequently less flourishing than themselves, with monopolizing trade, with engrossing the sources of wealth, and with checking and counteracting the industry of others. These sentiments have created in them that jealousy of us which the indolent ever feel towards the active and prosperous, and which an observation of our abundant resources excites in states whose supplies are less copious or attended with greater difficulty.'

These several articles have evidently been composed by different individuals, and possess various degrees of merit. The indications of negligence are less manifest in some than in others, yet in all it is obvious that dispatch rather than perfection has been the object in view. Though the history of London, as here given, proceeds on no plan, it contains particulars which are in a considerable degree interesting: but it falls very short, in neatness of narrative and force of expression, of a concise account of London in early times, which is to be found in an ingenious and learned romance intitled "the Life of Chaucer." In copying preceding works, the writers have not omitted the errors which had crept into them, and have borrowed from them statements which might be correct when they were drawn up, but which are now not strictly applicable. We refer especially to the account of the Courts of Law and the Inns of Court. It is here asserted that the Chancery is not a court of record; and that, in a call to the bar, there is no appeal from the decision of the benchers.

The article of prisons, which is the best executed in the whole volume, is introduced by some apt and ingenious remarks; and it announces, in the person of Mr. Nield, a successor to the late benevolent Howard in his singular and most laudable career.

In the part which treats of the manners of the metropolis, the subsequent observations are introduced:

'In an age when literature and the arts are so generally cultivated, when books are known to enlighten all classes, it is singular that authors of acknowledged celebrity should so rarely mingle with the professed patrons of the Muses. The cabinets of our statesmen are closed against the aristocracy of genius; the habitations of our nobles are unfrequented by artists of every description, excepting as they are employed in the labours of their profession. In public they are seldom acknowledged; and if by chance they are recognized it is by a nod of condescension, which mortifies and degrades the person whom it ostentatiously aims to distinguish.

'It is not only the custom of the present day to exclude men and women of letters from the society of the high-born; that tyrannical species of oppression is also extended to painters, actors, actresses, and persons the most distinguished in art and science. The pictures of our celebrated masters are purchased at a high price, and considered as the embellishments of our most magnificent mansions; but the painter is unknown except in his works! The actor or the actress is applauded in public; but, in private, they are seldom honoured by the most trivial mark of approbation. Our nobles make music their study —some of them are tolerable performers; they dedicate whole years to the acquirement of a moderate degree of skill; while their masters, who have attained the utmost point of perfection, are seldom considered as worthy of their society, much less of their friendship.

'While

'While meditating on the want of discrimination, the discouragement, and the injustice of this neglect, to meet a peer arm in arm with a pugilist or a gambler, low of birth, vulgar in deportment, insolent in look, coarse in language, and his ignorance only to be equalled by his effrontery, excites pain, indignation, and disgust, in every heart capable of feeling what is due to genius and virtue, and what to such abject and contemptible yet pernicious implements of vice.

'Professional men, the clergy, physicians, surgeons, and barristers, mingle much with the gentry, though each are subject to their respective peculiarity of habits and manners.'

The assertions here made require very considerable qualification. Persons of eminence, whether literati, artists, or actors, have in this country little cause for complaint in regard to the society which they enjoy, since they in general mix with that middle class, in which is to be found most of excellence of every kind; and in their path the more choice of the higher orders are often to be met. What converse can a well furnished and ingenious mind sustain with an ignorant or frivolous nobleman, who can only discourse on his stud, his hounds, and his gaieties? A Hume and a Gibbon, a Johnson and a Jones, a Reynolds and a Garrick, a Siddons and a Farren, have moved in the most desirable circles known to this country. Those who attain only to mediocrity, in their several stations, cannot expect to emerge from the sphere allotted to them by fortune and nature. In short, we do not discover sufficient grounds for the observations above-mentioned. The instances, we believe, are very rare in which persons of real merit, of any of the descriptions in question, have not been distinguished by the flattering notice of persons of rank and consideration. That child of simplicity and nature, the learned and indefatigable Gilbert Wakefield, not only lived in intimacy with but shared in the kindness of a Fox and a Thurlow:—we have been told that the former of these distinguished persons sought an interview with a Greek Professor, of whose attainments it is impossible to speak too highly, which the latter declined;—and we have heard of the nobility pressing to be acquainted with a poet of our own time, who certainly possesses genius, and of a prolific nature, but who may be regarded as not always making the best use of it, whether we refer to his present consideration or his future fame.

Some valuable and just remarks are to be found in this volume, on the state of the drama and of the fine arts in the present day; and much truth and good sense appear in the observations on the general style of our buildings. On the whole, indeed, though it must be stated that the work is chargeable with imperfections and defects, and that almost each separate

article is lamely executed, still, on account of the various information which it embraces relative to the interesting subjects on which it treats, it will be found a convenient addition to every well-furnished library; while it will unquestionably prove particularly useful to strangers in the course of a first visit to our capital. We should not do justice to the publication if we did not add that it is very elegantly printed, and decorated with handsome engravings and a map of London; nor if we omitted to mention the amusing nature of the concluding part of it, intitled a Description of the Plates respecting the itinerant traders of London in their ordinary costume, with brief notices of the remarkable places introduced in the back ground. An Index and some useful Lists are also subjoined.

In our 39th Volume, N.S. p. 442, we announced a small work intitled *A Picture of London*, which has in a great degree formed the basis of this larger undertaking.

Jo.

ART. XIII. *A Historical Relation of the Plague at Marseilles in the Year 1720*: containing a circumstantial Account of the Rise and Progress of the Calamity, and the Ravages it occasioned; with many curious and interesting Particulars relative to that Period. Translated from the French Manuscript of M. Bertrand, Physician at Marseilles, who attended during the whole Time of the Malady. by Anne Plumptre. With an Introduction, and a variety of Notes, by the Translator. 8vo. pp. 400. 7s 6d. Boards. Mawman. 1805.

WE are informed by the fair translator, that she obtained possession of M. Bertrand's MS. during a stay of some length at Marseilles; and from the circumstances of the case, we have every reason to conclude that it is authentic. The nature of the work therefore excited in us considerable expectations; and this interest was increased by some particulars which Miss Plumptre learned respecting the history and character of the author. M. Bertrand seems to have acted during the whole period of the calamity with great fortitude and benevolence; he was himself attacked with the disease, and had the misfortune of losing his wife and all his children: but he struggled through his afflictions, and survived the event for several years.

The opening chapters are occupied with an investigation into the origin of the disease; and we find that the same difference of sentiment existed at that time as in the present day, respecting the contagious nature of the complaint. M. Bertrand, adopting the popular doctrine, was a strong advocate for the opinion that it was in the first instance brought to the city,

city, and afterward propagated there by infection; while many of the other physicians endeavoured to prove that it originated from a peculiar state of the atmosphere, the nature of the diet, or other accidental causes. On this point, which involves a question of greater extent than the mere consideration of the events at Marseilles, we shall not attempt to decide: but we cannot avoid remarking that, whatever judgment we may ultimately form respecting the influence of contagion, the other causes which were assigned for the origin of the epidemic were altogether inadequate and nugatory. The fact, however, seems to have been pretty accurately ascertained, that a vessel from the Levant arrived at Marseilles, on board of which the plague had existed; that the usual precautions were not taken to purify the infected cargo; that the porters, who were employed about the goods, were seized with the disease; and that it afterward appeared among some tradesmen who dealt in the kind of articles which were imported by this vessel. These circumstances happened in the beginning of July, but it was not until the end of the month that the number of deaths was such as to excite serious apprehension. By this time the fears of the people seem to have been awakened, although still most of the physicians were unwilling to admit that the disease was more than a common malignant fever, produced by causes originating at home.—During August and September, it raged with the greatest severity; and its ravages appear to have equalled any of a similar nature that have occurred in modern times. Owing in some measure to the unavoidable exigencies of the case, but certainly in part also to a want of decision and promptitude in the magistrates, the condition of the city was to the last degree distressful. Business of every description was entirely at a stand; the prospect of famine was added to that of disease; and the streets were so filled with dead bodies, which no person could be found to remove, that at length it became difficult to pass along them. A still more deplorable spectacle was presented by multitudes of the sick, who, unable to procure the assistance of nurses or physicians, and impelled by despair, left their own habitations, and, after having wandered about in search of aid, at length expired in the open streets;

'He must have been lost to every sentiment of humanity who could behold unmoved so many miserable figures, perhaps two hundred at a time, deprived of every comfort, and sinking under the weight of the most malignant of all diseases, exposed, without any means of procuring an alleviation of their sufferings, alike to the scorching heat of the sun and to the chillness of the night air. Death was painted on every face, though in different forms and colours. One was pale and cadaverous another furiously red—another wan and livid—another yellow—another violet. Some with eyes sunk and hollow—others

with eyes sparkling with fever—some with looks faint and languishing—others wild and distracted; but all with an air of terror and despondency which rendered them scarcely cognizable. As the plague assumes all sorts of symptoms, so all sorts of complaints were to be heard. Some complained of the most acute pains in the head and in all parts of the body—others were afflicted with cruel vomitings—others with violent swellings in the belly—others with burning tumours. One, feeble and languishing, uttered not a word—another, animated by delirium, talked incessantly; in short, it was an assemblage of all the woes imagination can picture to itself, aggravated by the idea that while nothing, as it is well known, gives so much relief in this disorder as perspiration, if this were procured in the day, it was immediately checked by being exposed to the repulsive air of the night.'

It was at this period of horror, that the benevolent exertions of Henry de Belzunce, bishop of Marseilles, (so well known in this country, in consequence of the eulogy passed on him by Pope,) were eminently conspicuous. Regardless of his own safety, he remained in the city during the whole course of the epidemic, and devoted all his exertions and his property to the alleviation of the miseries of his fellow-citizens: but, notwithstanding his patriotic efforts, and those of some other individuals, a great want of proper arrangement still existed in every department, occasioned in some measure by a discordance of opinion among those who had the direction of the city, and partly by the magnitude of the evil; which, by resisting all the obstacles that were opposed to its progress, reduced the minds of the inhabitants to a state of absolute despair.

Regulations were, however, at length formed for clearing the streets from the dead bodies, which, after much difficulty, was accomplished by calling in the assistance of the galley slaves, who were induced to undertake the task on a promise of obtaining their liberty: but of nearly 700 convicts who were employed, the greatest part perished. In October, the distresses of the city began to diminish, the disease became less frequent, medical assistance was obtained from the neighbouring towns, and a system of regularity was introduced, in consequence of the appointment of a new governor, who seemed to possess every requisite for filling so arduous an office. At the commencement of the new year, the epidemic might be said to have subsided, although some individual cases still occurred during the spring months; and indeed it was not until this time that M. Bertrand experienced the severest misfortunes in his own family:

'Even in this moment, when confidence was so much restored, an event happened which awakened a new alarm. The wife of one of the physicians who served in the country, and who could not be supposed

supposed to have received the infection like the poor people of the city, fell sick and died in twenty-four hours; and the same day a son, the only child who remained, was attacked, and died also in a few hours. The rest of the children of this physician* had all died in the month of September. Every one was touched with such a series of misfortunes, which seemed to fall the more severely on a gentleman who had himself suffered several attacks of the disease, and who by this last stroke was left entirely desolate.'

The work of M. Bertrand does not afford us the authentic documents which might be wished, or indeed expected, relative to the total number of persons who were carried off by the disease. We are told, in a general way, that 'it was computed that in the latter end of August and beginning of September, more than a thousand perished every day;' and it is afterward grossly estimated, that the whole mortality amounted to 50,000, being one half of the population of the city. An account is given of the losses sustained by the different trading bodies, which seem to justify this calculation:

'Of 100 master hatters, 53 died; and of 300 journeymen who remained in the city, the rest having fled, only 30 escaped. Of 104 master joiners, 84 died. Of 138 master taylors, 78 died. Of 200 shoemakers, 90 only survived; and of 400 coblers, only 50. The masons were reduced from 500 to 150. If we descend to more servile occupations, such as porters, &c. not more than one in six escaped. With the women and children it was still worse, for the disease was always more fatal to them than to the men. By this we may form some idea of the general mortality, which certainly, on a moderate computation, carried away half the number of our inhabitants.'

M. Bertrand devotes the last part of his work to an account of the different publications that were written on the disease; many of which are controversial, principally discussing the question whether it was produced by contagion. We have been disappointed by meeting with little medical information respecting this formidable epidemic; its symptoms and progress are only incidentally mentioned, and in the most cursory manner; and the author gives scarcely any statement of the practice adopted either by himself or his colleagues, or of the effect produced by any of the remedies or plans of treatment. We must, indeed, confess that, in other respects, the publication has not afforded us all that interest and information which we anticipated. A large portion of it is occupied with a relation of petty squabbles among the magistrates and the physicians, and an account of contentions between the religious orders, with the

* Mons. Bertrand, the author of this narrative.

arrangement

arrangement of their ceremonials; subjects which at all times must have been of comparatively trifling importance, and are now totally uninteresting.

Bos.

ART. XIV. *A System of Arrangement and Discipline for the Medical Department of Armies.* By Robert Jackson, M. D. 8vo. pp. 500. 12s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1805.

WE noticed in our 46th Vol. (p. 60.) a publication by Dr. Jackson, on the constitution of the medical department of the army; and to many of his remarks we then cordially assented, particularly to those in which he strenuously recommends that every inducement should be offered, that may engage the most respectable members of the profession in the military service. To some of his proposals, however, especially that of establishing a medical school in the Isle of Wight, we took the liberty of objecting; and we also passed some strictures on the singularity of his style and phraseology, which appeared to us both affected and obscure. In the present volume, the subject is discussed more at large, and the author enters into the consideration of all the minute parts of his plan. He begins by pointing out the defects of the present system, and chiefly in respect to the expenditure of the public money; and he informs us that he addressed a letter to the minister, stating in forcible terms the grievances which exist in this department. He certainly by this act manifested a laudable zeal in the cause of his profession: but we think that he displays no great knowlege of the world in avowing his *disappointment* when he found that his communication was not noticed. It was in consequence of his letter remaining unanswered, that Dr. Jackson determined to lay his sentiments on this subject before the public; and the work which he has produced contains so much valuable matter, that we can scarcely regret the circumstance which gave rise to it.

The first chapter treats on the 'constitution of a medical staff;' and, after some remarks on its regulation, the Doctor proceeds to specify the kind of education which he deems peculiarly necessary for the military practitioner, and the principles which have directed the different nations of Europe in the arrangement of their medical code. He displays in a forcible manner the evils which are connected with general hospitals, and strongly enforces the superior advantages of regimental establishments; and the grounds on which he forms this preference are, we think, extremely plausible, if not absolutely convincing. He states it as an acknowleged fact, that, in the general

general hospital, the mortality is greater, and the recovery more protracted even when it is finally effected. The circumstances, in which the patients are placed in these establishments, appear sufficient to enable us to account for this difference in their effects: since, in the one case, the assistance is prompt and immediate, the sick remain surrounded by their friends, and in general have abundance of fresh air: while in the other case, a day or more may elapse before the physician takes his accustomed round, the patients are placed under the care of strangers, and although the building may be spacious, its parts are frequently crowded, and the air rendered impure.

Dr. Jackson next considers the number of medical officers who would be sufficient to administer the necessary assistance on his system; and he concludes the chapter by a proposal for the institution of a medical school, in which the students should receive such instruction only as may be particularly adapted to a military life. To this suggestion, however, we must object, as we did to the plan of education which he offered in his former volume. We are of opinion that no single department of the medical profession can be learnt without an acquaintance with every branch of it; and as to Dr. Jackson's idea that an uniform medical creed should be established, to which all the teachers are to conform their instructions, such an arrangement would be obviously so subversive of all improvement, that we are surprised to see it proposed by any man of judgment and ability; peculiarly by one whose own doctrines and opinions differ so materially from those, which are adopted by the majority of his contemporaries.

Chapter II. relates to hospitals, and contains many judicious remarks on their situation, dimensions, construction, and arrangement. Though the details into which the author enters are too numerous to allow us to lay them before our readers, they are on this account the more valuable; and we would strongly recommend them to the attention of all those who are engaged in the establishment of hospitals of any description. In one particular, however, though a circumstance of subordinate importance, we must differ from the author: viz. when, in giving directions for the ventilation of the wards, he recommends that the windows should be carried down to the floor; because, as he says, 'the noxious part of the atmosphere, or something dissolved or suspended in the atmosphere possessing a noxious quality, seems to be among the heaviest portions of the air.' We have some doubts of the accuracy of this opinion; and we apprehend that windows of the kind which Dr. Jackson advises would be attended with serious inconvenience:

venience: while the usual windows, if they be large enough, and the apartments be not too much crowded, should relieve him from all fear of the air accumulating in corners. Experiments shew that the slightest agitation, or current, is sufficient to produce an uniform mixture of the air in any given space.

The opinion which we mentioned above, respecting the little advantage to be derived from the formation of general hospitals, is confirmed by some facts which are stated in the notes to the 2d chapter. In the year 1793, a different arrangement took place in the constitution of the army medical boards, and one of the steps adopted under the new system was the establishment of general hospitals. It appears from Dr. Jackson's account, that some of these, having been found totally useless, are converted into barracks, and that none of them have by any means fulfilled the purpose for which they were erected.

The 3d chapter is intitled 'medical management.' After some observations on the importance of classing patients according to the character of their diseases, we are led into general remarks on pathology, in which we meet with the same singularity of opinion and expression that we noticed in Dr. Jackson's former publication. His language is so different from that which is generally adopted, and is to us so obscure and unintelligible, that we cannot pretend to give an accurate analysis of his peculiar speculations; we are indeed strongly inclined to suspect that, in many cases, they possess more originality in the expression than in the substance.—We next meet with a number of valuable details on subjects connected with the management of hospitals; among others, on the method of making out regular returns of the sick, provision of medical officers, discipline of the nurses and the other attendants, rules for the administration of medicines, and directions for the best method of providing them, with an estimate of the necessary expenditure.—Chapter IV. which treats on œconomical administration, is in like manner principally composed of minute specifications; furnishing an account of the number of servants of all descriptions necessary in a medical establishment, with some good observations on diet, and on the best method of obtaining a regular supply of provisions.

To conclude; we regard this as a publication of considerable value and importance. It is evidently the production of a man who writes from personal observation, whose opinions on many points are original, and who proposes them with unrestrained confidence. Probably his ardor may have led him into some inaccuracies, but his statements are certainly such as deserve the serious attention of those who superintend the army arrangements.—If we have been more concise in our account of

the work than its merit might seem to deserve, our brevity will be excused by the expectation that the notice, which we take of it, must cause it to be perused by every one who is interested in the discussion.

Bos.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For OCTOBER, 1806.

EDUCATION.

Art. 15. *The History of England*, for the Use of Schools and Young Persons. By Edward Baldwin, Esq. With thirty-two Heads of the Kings, engraved on Copper-plate, and a striking Representation of an antient Tournament. 12mo. pp. 224. 4s. Hodgkins. 1806.

If this gentleman be not a happy and successful preceptor of youth, the failure is not owing to a want of either ability or information, but, we apprehend, to a misconception of the nature of the function. He appears to be of opinion that what is easy in the perusal is composed with facility, the directly opposite of which is known to be the case by persons of sound taste and judgment; in no performances, not excepting those of the most scientific and didactic kind, ought accuracy and precision to be more sedulously observed than in those which are destined for children; and in no works are aukward playfulness, coarse expressions, and dubious sentiments to be more carefully avoided. We also think that authors, who devote their labours to children, should be sparing of opinions, and confine themselves very much to facts. If the bias of a writer, however, should tinge productions of this sort, we should least quarrel with it when, like that of Mr. B. it is in favour of the rights of the subject.

Mr. Baldwin has also published *Fables antient and modern*, for children, of which we mean speedily to take notice.

Jo.

Art. 16. *The Juvenile Preceptor:* or Course of Moral and Scientific Instructions. Vol. II. containing Spelling Lessons from two to seven Syllables, &c. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Symonds.

This second volume, we are persuaded, will be received by the public with as much approbation as the former. (See Rev. Vol. 37, p. 210.) The stories are in a great measure compiled, but they are well selected, and impress good and virtuous sentiments.

The poems and hymns introduced are such as parents, of whatever bias in religious opinions, may wish to inculcate on the minds of their children.

A second edition of Vol. I. has been published: in which no word is inserted in sentences that has not before been used in spelling columns.—Mr. Nicholson, the printer, of Poughnill, near Ludlow, avows himself as the compiler of this publication.

Man.

Art. 17. *Domestic Recreations;* or Dialogues illustrative of Natural and Scientific Subjects, by Priscilla Wakefield, Author of Mental Improvement,

Improvement, &c. 12mo. pp. 215. 2s. 6d. Darton and Co.

A pleasing collection of conferences supposed to have passed between a mother and her children. They are conveyed in an easy, familiar, and agreeable manner; cannot fail of engaging the attention of youth, for whose service they are intended; and must contribute to their instruction and improvement. Hi.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 18. *A Letter to the Hebrew Nation.* By Charles Crawford, Esq. crown 8vo. 2s. Boards. Becket.

It is easier to lament the strong prejudices of the Jews against Christianity, than to suggest effectual measures for their removal; and we scarcely know in what way to address them in order to be certain of gaining their attention. Mr. Crawford, if he does not convert, at least cannot offend them, since he expostulates with mildness, and exhorts them "by the meekness and gentleness of Christ" to consider the contents of his letter: which places before them the prophecies relative to the Messiah, and urges their complete accomplishment in the author and finisher of the Christain Faith. He assures them that the period of their conversion and restoration to their own land is near; though there are no signs of instant restoration. It cannot happen, he thinks, before the conclusion of the present century.—An evil heart of unbelief is said to keep them from their country. Will the Hebrew Nation take this hint in good part?— Moy.

Art. 19. *The Battle of Armageddon*; or final Triumph of the Protestant Cause. 12mo. 1s. Hatchard.

This wild rhapsody is introduced by an Address to the Messiah; who, we are told, 'will soon come, and on the blood-stained field of Armageddon give to the fowls of heaven their destined prey.' The author adopts the idea of Mr. Faber, without displaying any of his learning and ability, and positively asserts that 'in the year 1848, or according to the fullest calculation in the year 1866, universal dominion shall be established at Jerusalem, and the saints actually risen from their graves shall rule in great peace and tranquillity.' *Credat qui vult.* Do

Art. 20. *A Charge delivered to the Clergy of the Diocese of Exeter*, at the primary Visitation of John Lord Bishop of Exeter, 1804 and 1805. 4to. 1s. 6d. Becket.

It is impossible not to applaud the great humility and liberality of mind, with which Dr. Fisher enters on his sacred function. After having maintained the divine origin of our religion, he adverts to the circumstances under which it exists in this country; and without wishing to destroy liberty of conscience, or to invade the principles of toleration as they at present exist, he protests against the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts, and the emancipation of the Catholics. He exhorts his Clergy to oppose the peculiar doctrines of Calvinism, as inconsistent with the tenets of the Established Church, and to enforce their preaching by truly exemplary conduct. Do

NOVELS.

NOVELS.

Art. 21. *Flim-Flams!* or the Life and Errors of my Uncle and his Friends! with Illustrations and Obscurities, by Messrs. Tag, Rag, and Bobtail. A Literary Romance. 2d Edition. Crown 8vo. 3 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Murray.

We have derived considerable entertainment from a perusal of these volumes; in which the author exposes to deserved ridicule much of that nonsensical jargon, which has of late years been solemnly promulgated as philosophical truth. His points of attack are indeed numerous, but they are generally in quarters which ought to be assailed; and should they occasionally be ill directed, true genius will have little to apprehend from their effect. "The Satire," it has been remarked, "which brought Theobald and Moore into contempt, dropped impotent from Bentley, like the Javelin of Priam." *O.*

Art. 22. *The Secret.* By Isabella Kelly. 12mo. 4 Vols. 12s. Longman and Co.

Those who delight in useless mysteries and unnecessary horrors may perhaps be gratified by reading these volumes: but, in our judgment, the contemplation of such stories is attended with worse consequences than the mere waste of time. It tends to produce a sickly and irritable state of mind, gives a temporary shock even to intellects that are sound and healthy, but enervates and permanently diseases those which are weak. *O.*

Art. 23. *The Pilgrim of the Cross*: or the Chronicles of Christabelle de Mowbray. An ancient Legend. By Elizabeth Helme. 12mo. 4 Vols. 18s. sewed. Ostell, &c.

This story is possessed of some interest, but it is too much protracted and spun out. The reader anticipates the conclusion of the tale long before he has proceeded half through it; and, easily penetrating into the real character of the disguised agents, he grows tired of the folly of those who are misled by so obvious a deceit. *O.*

LAW.

Art. 24. *The Trial by Impeachment, of Henry Lord Viscount Melville,* for High Crimes and Misdemeanors, before the House of Peers, in Westminster Hall, between the 29th of April and the 17th of May, 1806. To which is prefixed, a Sketch of the Life and Political Character of his Lordship, and a complete Account of the Proceedings in Parliament relative to the Charges on which the Impeachment was founded. 8vo. pp. 375. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1806.

Art. 25. *A Compendious Report of the Trial of Henry Viscount Melville,* upon the Impeachment of the Commons of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, in Parliament assembled, for High Crimes and Misdemeanors. 8vo. pp. 237. 3s. 6d. sewed. Asperne. 1806.

Since much of the evidence given at the trial is left out, many of the arguments are omitted, and the speeches are abridged, in each of these publications, we shall reserve such remarks as may be suggested to us by a consideration of the charges, the proofs, and the judgment,

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as well as by the frame of the proceedings and the conduct of the trial, till the account of it which is to be published by authority falls into our hands.

Thus had we written previously to the recent proceeding in Chancery, when the liberal and enlightened chief of that Court interdicted the sale of the former works; an event which we deem to be scarcely of less importance than the trial which gave occasion to it. The decision, if we can trust our information, did not proceed from the judgment of the present Chancellor, but was grounded on a precedent in the time of the Lord Chancellor Bathurst. This matter excites a multitude of very grave and important reflections, which it is not within our province to state, and of which our limits would not admit. So seriously do we regard it in its principle and consequences, that we hope it will not rest where it is. Let the right stand as it may, we are fully satisfied that the inconveniences, which may attend it, are such as would induce the august body claiming it to waive the exercise of it in all ordinary cases. Jo.

Art. 26. *The Reading upon the Statute of Uses, of Francis Bacon, afterwards Baron of Verulam and Viscount of St. Alban*, Lord High Chancellor of Great Britain *;—a new Edition, with very full Notes and Explanations, and a copious Table of the Contents, by William Henry Rowe, Esq. 8vo. pp. 262. Clarke, &c.

Lord Bacon's Treatise on the Statute of Uses, though evidently left in an imperfect state by its great author, has always been highly esteemed by the profession, and exhibits undoubted proofs of that luminous and comprehensive mind which he possessed in so eminent a degree. Some obscurities, arising partly from the carelessness of its first editors, and partly from the abstruse nature of the subject, have long required the aid of a judicious annotator; and we think that Mr. Rowe has rendered an acceptable service to the profession, (particularly the younger part of it,) by the pains which he has bestowed on this undertaking. Perhaps, in some of the notes, he has been more industrious to display *himself* than to illustrate or explain his author, and has thus been often led to an unnecessary length of discussion. He will excuse us if we confess that we are unable to discern the utility of the attack which he has chosen to make on the prevailing mode of conveyance by *Lease and Release*, the observations on which tend only to unsettle established opinions and practice without any solid advantage. Other parts of the work, however, are useful and judicious, and contain many successful alterations of the text of former editions which were involved in deep obscurity.—We shall be glad to see another impression required, in which we hope the notes will be more compressed; and we suggest to Mr. Rowe's consideration whether it would not be more convenient to have them placed at the bottom of the page, or in the form of a marginal commentary, than to refer them to the end of the treatise in one collective body.

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* This title page contains an *anachronism*, in styling Lord Bacon Lord High Chancellor of Great Britain: he was Lord High Chancellor of *England:* but we believe that Lord Cowper was the first Chancellor of *Great Britain;* being so nominated immediately after the Union. Touch.

MEDICAL,

MEDICAL, &c.

Art. 27. *Medical Collections on the Effects of Cold*, as a Remedy in certain Diseases. With an Appendix, containing an Account of some Experiments made with a View to ascertain the Effects of cold Water on the Pulse. By John Edmonds Stock, M.D. &c. Physician in Bristol. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co.

Although the author of this volume does not profess to offer much that is new or original, yet his object is important, and his work is of considerable value. Notwithstanding the high encomiums that have been passed on the employment of cold in certain diseases, still it must be confessed that we are often in doubt to what particular affections it is most applicable; and we frequently use it rather as an empirical remedy, than as one which we prescribe on scientific principles.

Dr. Stock properly begins by inquiring into the general effects of cold on the human system; a point on which totally opposite opinions have been maintained, each supported with some appearance of argument, and much positive confidence. One party has endeavoured to prove that the operation of cold is always sedative, and the other that it is stimulant; while Dr. Cullen, with a degree of indecision which is perhaps more honorable to his candor than to his discernment, has in his directions for the treatment of fever enjoined the application of cold under two different heads, as under different circumstances fulfilling both these indications. The opinion of Dr. Stock is that cold is in all cases a direct sedative; and he thus briefly states his reasons for adopting such an idea:

'They are derived, 1st, from the paleness and contraction of the skin, which succeed the application of cold; 2dly, from its diminishing or weakening the action of the heart and arteries; 3dly, from the debility and inactivity observable in the inhabitants of cold countries; 4thly, from the gradual diminution of the vital powers, which commences with its first application, and which, if its operation be long continued, terminates in their entire extinction, either in particular parts or in the whole body; and lastly, from the accumulated excitability which it induces to the stimulus of heat.'

The general truth of these propositions may perhaps be admitted: but we apprehend that there are many exceptions to their uniform application. A sufficient degree of cold, long enough employed, no doubt diminishes the action of the heart, and finally produces death: but a moderate degree applied for a length of time,—or a greater degree, if applied only for a short time,—seems as certainly to increase the energy of the circulation, and to give tone to the system. As to the effects of climate, if we admit with Dr. Stock that the inhabitants of the frigid zone are rendered as it were torpid by extreme cold, it must at the same time be remembered that the excessive heat of the tropical regions appears scarcely less unfavourable to exertion.

After some 'remarks upon the history of the medical application of cold and its effects,' the author considers its operation in particular diseases. Here he follows the arrangement of Dr. Cullen, and, in as many successive chapters, treats concerning the application of cold

in the five orders which constitute the class of pyrexiæ. It is in these diseases that this remedy has generally been considered as the most applicable; and in many of them, it is both safe and effectual. The propriety of applying it to the phlegmasiæ must still be regarded as doubtful; and although Dr. Stock appears evidently desirous to extend it to these diseases, the authorities which he adduces are not sufficiently powerful to satisfy our minds respecting a practice which has been so much controverted.—We have next an account of the use of cold in the *comata*, the *spasma*, and the *vesaniæ* of Cullen; particular cases of each of these have occasionally derived the most striking benefit from its application: but it does not promise to be attended with that uniform success which we experience in the febrile diseases.

Respecting the operation of cold in general, and its medical application, one circumstance appears to us of the first importance, and yet it has been entirely overlooked by the author. He seems to consider the living body as consisting of only one set of powers, viz. that of the heart and arteries; and he seldom even incidentally notices the not less important system of the nerves. These two parts of the animal frame, though intimately connected together, are in many respects distinct and independent of each other; they are governed by different laws of action, and are differently influenced by external agents. It is, we apprehend, on this principle that we are to reconcile the seeming contradictions which have been manifested on the subject of cold; perhaps it may diminish the irritability of the sanguiferous system, while it excites the energy of the nerves; and thus in proportion as the one or the other of these effects becomes the most apparent, will it exhibit a sedative or a stimulating action, and be classed accordingly.

Dr. Stock has exercised considerable diligence in collecting materials for his work; which are well arranged, and the references are carefully quoted at the foot of the page. We regret, however, that he has not been more nice in his appreciation of his authorities; Brown is quoted as affording evidence in a point of practical experience, and Dr. Kinglake's crude speculations respecting gout are adopted without reserve. Bos.

Art. 28. *An Essay on the Effects of Carbonate of Iron upon Cancer*, with an Inquiry into the Nature of that Disease. By Rich. Carmichael, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons in Ireland, and Surgeon of St. George's Hospital and Dispensary. 8vo. pp. 116. 4s. Printed at Dublin and sold in London by Murray.

As its title implies, this tract contains a proposal for the employment of a new remedy in cancer, the carbonate of iron. Mr. Carmichael was first induced to try this substance in consequence of the hypothesis of Dr. Adams, that cancer, like hydatids, is a parasitical animal possessed of an independent vitality.

'This (he says) obviously led me to the consideration, that if the lives of those supposed animals were extinguished, they would be expelled from the body by suppuration,—and as Iron has been found to be very effectual in destroying intestinal worms, I was induced to hope, that it would be equally destructive to other animals of a parasitical nature.—

nature.—I, therefore, felt myself justified in making trial of a Medicine in itself harmless, the effects of which more than answered my expectations.'

In consequence of this speculation, iron was employed both externally and internally, in some cases of what were supposed to be cancerous affections, and a part of which had existed for a considerable length of time and had baffled various remedies: when on all of them the effect of the iron was highly beneficial.

After an account of his experiments, the author enters into an examination of the opinions both of the antients and moderns, respecting the nature of cancer. He thinks that the idea suggested by Dr. Adams is alone worthy of attention: but, although he coincides with that Gentleman in his conclusion as to the independent existence of cancer, he adopts the opinion on other grounds, and differs from the Doctor with respect to what he considers as the essential part of the cancerous substance. It is not to the cysts containing the greenish fat, but to the 'substance resembling cartilage, with its annexed bands and roots,' that he attaches the property of independent vitality: but the arguments, by which he supports his conjecture, are in our estimation extremely feeble. They consist in a fancied resemblance between the structure of cancers and that of some of the polypi; in an unfounded assumption that cancerous affections are chiefly found in parts which possess the lowest degree of life, and that such parts are particularly suited for the existence of parasitical animals; and in other conjectures equally vague and unsatisfactory. It is not a little remarkable that, in enumerating the arguments in favour of the independent vitality of cancer, the author uses the one which was employed by Dr. Adams, although he had previously declared that he regarded it as without foundation. Notwithstanding the complete futility of Mr. C.'s hypothesis, however, we think that his practice deserves a fair trial. Even if the affections which he treated were not actually cancerous, which indeed we apprehend to be the case, still we may entertain some hopes of acquiring a new and powerful remedy in a class of diseases which are both dangerous and untractable. Bos.

Art. 29. *The Metaphysic of Man*; or, the pure Part of the Physiology of Man: containing, I. Fundamentals of the Metaphysic of Nature in general, particularly of the Organized Part; as an Introduction for a Basis of a scientifical System of Medicine. II. The Organography of Man: or a Description of the organical Modifications, in Space. III. The Proper Metaphysic of Man; or the Explication of an ideal *Athletic Health*; as a Description of Man in Time; from the Moment of his Origin, to that when he ceases to be. With Fifteen Tables, and an Engraving. Translated from the German (recently published) of J. C. Goldbeck, By S.F. Waddington, M.D. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Highley.

In his preface, Dr. Waddington speaks of the merits of this treatise in the highest terms of commendation; he informs us that it contains many discoveries of the first importance in practice; he is even inclined to compare them with the introduction of vaccination,

in respect to the probable advantages which mankind may derive from them; and he does not scruple to rank them with Harvey's discovery of the circulation of the blood.—Although no great admirers of German metaphysics, we were thus induced to enter on the work with considerable eagerness: but, notwithstanding our utmost exertions, we were absolutely unable to comprehend either its general scope and design, or the meaning of its individual parts. All that we can detect is, that the author sets a high value on mathematics, despises chemistry, and is an enthusiastic admirer of Kant.

If, however, we have it not in our power to give our readers an abstract or analysis of this performance, we can at least present them with a specimen of it; and for this purpose, we quote a passage from the commencement of the essay.

'Introduction.—The Phenomenology of Nature in general.—Addition and Explication.

'If we admit that every thing in the world consists of a simple substance or matter, as the real part of *space*; and that *space* and *time* are merely forms of imaginary objects, it will be found, that all the phenomena, that we can conceive such matter to give, are described within two points; the one as *punctum unitas*, and the other, the *punctum multiplicitas*.

'Addition.—There is but one matter, or substance, that fills *space*; it is usually termed *raw*. Every thing that has been observed in nature, is a substance formed from this matter, which by the fundamental forms of our imaginary view of objects, *time* and *space* appears differently modified.

'Explication.—This matter, when considered merely as filling up *space*, gives an idea of the *raw* matter. When this idea of the *raw* matter is connected with the idea of *time*, phenomena are perceived in the matter, which are formed by us into attributes, and magnified by the possibility of an opposite point, produce other attributes in consequence. Thus, an enlivened universe is produced, in which, properly speaking, no *raw* matter can be conceived. From such enlivened matter, the form arises; viz. an explicative, firm absolute necessity of succession, of several other attributes of the enlivened matter, in a distinct order. This form must always be considered as enlivened, as being produced by the enlivened matter; and which, without *space* and *time*, cannot be conceived at all. From these enlivened forms it is, that we, the self forms, can attain our ideas.' Bos.

POETRY *and the* DRAMA.

Art. 30. *The Invisible Girl;* a Piece in One Act, as performed at the Theatre Royal, Drury Lane. Written by Theodore Edward Hook. 8vo. 1s. 6d. C. and R. Baldwin.

Art. 31. *Catch him who can.* A musical Farce, in Two Acts. By Theodore Edward Hook. 8vo. 1s. 6d. C and R. Baldwin.

These two little pieces may be classed together, as possessing no claim on a reader's attention. In the representation, they might perhaps have given room for an actor to shew the versatility of his powers,

powers, or have afforded opportunities for the warbling of a melodious voice. O.

Art. 32. *The Laughable Lover.* A Comedy, in Five Acts. By Carol O'Caustic. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Symonds.

Carol O'Caustic fancies that he is very satirical, and deals about his blows with great fury: but, unluckily, in his own performance, he gives his antagonists too many occasions for revenge: like an unskilful fowler, determined on murder, who rams down a double charge into his barrel, and is knocked backwards by the recoil of his piece. O.

Art. 33. *Poems.* By Henry Fox Cooper. 8vo. 4s. Cadell and Davies.

Our readers will probably be amused by the following extract from one of the *poems* in this collection, intitled 'the Suicide:'

'Oh Death! how many victims bow,
To thy cold arms consign'd,
Some by the die are soon laid low
And some not sound in mind.

'Full sorrows often gorge thy tomb,
And turn which way we will,
We find that oft in time's big womb
Injustice dooms to kill.

'To prove that friendship's but a name,
As our sweet bard has sung,
And "follows nought but wealth and fame,"
Should through the land be rung,

'A Fact I'll tell which late occurred
And came within my view,
Which when unfolded and is heard
Must shew the bard sung true.

'A crowd had gather'd on a bank
Where ..... waters play,
Which evening's shade had made quite dank
Just at the close of day.

'Then instant to the place I ran
And saw what made me feel,
Just from the river drawn a man
And held up by the heel.

'Pale was his face, and swell'd his form
Though genteel was his make,
And pity each one's breast did warm
That life should him forsake,' &c. &c. &c.

We are ready to allow that many of Mr. C.'s performances rise nearer to mediocrity than the specimen just given: but they also furnish instances of greater improprieties of language and versification. J. Mans. jun.r

Art. 34. *Poems*, chiefly descriptive of the softer and more delicate Sensations and Emotions of the Heart; original and translated, or imitated from the works of Gesner. By Robert Fellowes, A.M. Oxon. 12mo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Mawman.

Some persons will probably be not a little surprised at seeing a grave divine, who has been recently occupied on the sombre subject of Death *, now employed in

> " Sporting with Amaryllis in the shade
> Or with the tangles of Neæra's hair:" (Milton.)

but Mr. Fellowes perhaps would say that, while life continues, whether for a longer or a shorter date, it is wise to sweeten it with love; and that he is sanctioned by the example of Horace, who urges the circumstance of Death as a motive for losing no time in cultivating the soft emotions of the heart. In our court, Mr. F. will not be asked to give a reason for being in love, or for expressing his passion in numbers: we shall not object to his endeavours to enliven his pursuits by cultivating poetry; but he must forgive us if we express our concern at discovering that the dancing Muse is not so propitious to his fame as the sedate matron Theology. From 'bloated and unnatural phraseology,' his pieces are certainly free, and so also are those of Sternhold and Hopkins: but Mr. F. seems to have forgotten a maxim of Horace, " *In vitium ducit culpæ fuga, si caret arte.*" It is not sufficient to constitute good poetry that the writer avoids the extremes of affectation and bombast; he must also shun with equal care those of tameness and negligence. Verse should be elevated above prose both in thought and expression; while it ought not to be stiff and inflated, it should be elegant and polished; and it is not a sufficient apology for a prosaic and drawling rhimer, that it has been his aim to be natural and easy. When lines creep along on monosyllabic feet, when the natural construction is inverted for the sake of the metre, and when, in what is called poetry, neither grace nor effect is manifested, we cannot suspend the task of criticism because the writer has not been guilty of 'bloated phraseology.' We had not read many pages before we saw that Mr. F.'s ideas of poetry were very unlike our own; and, as we proceeded, our dissatisfaction increased. Few ballad verses are, we believe, inferior to the following;

> 'With less of care my days have flow'd,
> More joy'd I've travell'd on life's road.'
>
> 'Who hears her speak, enraptur'd hears,
> Her smiles with rapture sees,
> And yet she loves thee, and shall love,
> Therefore be thy heart at ease.'
>
> 'Lucy! what! promise one whole hour
> Thee not to kiss! 'tis past my power,'
>
> 'E'en then as fresh and warm for thee
> As now it is, my love shall be.'

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* See our last Review, page 100.

'To thee this vase I vow, if thou'lt agree,
What I for Mary feel to make her feel for me.'

In the longest poem of the collection, intitled, 'The first seaman, or Love teaching the art of Navigation,' which, as bordering on the Epic, claims some majesty of verse, the same *ease* appears as in the smaller poems. Take these couplets as specimens:

'With patient skill I'll scoop the hollow tree
Till it is capable of holding me.'

'Few days had lapsed when the hollow tree
Shap'd by his art, a boat began *to be*.'

'Sure 'twould be folly, nay, rank madness be,
In such a crazy bark to put to sea.'

'See, cries the youth, my life, my love, there see
The hollow trunk that brought me safe to thee.'

Mr. F. assumes to himself the merit of having been studious of perspicuity: but, if he has not embarrassed the reader by the *sesquipedalia verba*, he obliges him to think twice to find the meaning of his inverted language.—The couplet,

'Does not the tamest sheep which I possess
Rejoice with me than with his fellows less,'

is not a more striking instance of words transposed from their natural order, for the sake of the verse, than the line

"And he will me home take"

in Sternhold's and Hopkins's version of the Psalms.——

'The virtuous, when the virtuous love,
That love is form'd to last.'

Here Mr. F. has begun a sentence, but, not having finished it, the lines are incapable of construction.

The Elegy, in which the author takes a glance at his personal situation, interested us in the perusal, though the last lines of the 5th and 15th stanzas are very imperfect. We transcribe two stanzas:

'For he, whom Nature with fine taste befriends,
Who, sensitive to beauty's impulse glows,
Appropriates all wherein his sight extends,
His is the landscape wheresoe'er he goes.

'Much have I suffer'd on life's rugged way;
Treach'ry has pierc'd me with her barbed dart;
But when I look on Nature's prospect gay
A balmy softness steals o'er all my heart.'

A truth important to Genius is expressed in the first of these stanzas. The great may have the nominal possession of the earth, but only men of taste can enjoy it.

The version of the French *triolet*, p. 52. is rendered incomplete by the omission of the Name. Mo-y.

POLITICS.

Art. 35. *A Letter to the independent Electors of Westminster*, from Henry Maddock, Jun. Esq. Barrister at Law. 8vo. 2s. Miller. 1806.

Mr. Maddock here takes the ground which has been often occupied by the Old Whigs, and contends that it is not politic in the Commons to elect the sons of Peers to represent them in the Lower House. His objections to the election of Lord Percy for Westminster proceed therefore on public principles. He tells the Electors that the nobleman whom they have lately chosen cannot represent their class, their habits, or their opinions; that he cannot enter into their feelings; and that, in a contest between the Aristocracy and the People, he must inevitably take part against the latter. They are called likewise to consider, in the present state of the representation, when Peers and rich commoners have so preponderating an influence in the return of members to serve in the lower House of Parliament, whether any truly constitutional man can espouse a system which must decidedly add to that preponderance, and in fact convert the House of Commons into a representation not of the people but of the Peers.

At a General Election, these reflections are not unworthy of notice: but we observe with concern that constitutional principles are daily going out of fashion; and because the French have abused the name of Liberty, many Britons seem inclined to relinquish those sound maxims which were venerated by their ancestors, and without which this country could never have become the admiration of the world. Independent Electors, if truly solicitous of obtaining a House of Commons which shall fairly represent the people of England and zealously watch over their liberties, should display a sacred veneration for the principles of the Constitution, when they are required to exercise their franchise.—As men of talents and vigor of mind are not always rich, and capable of standing a contest, Mr. M. recommends the establishment of an Election Fund. **Moy.**

BIOGRAPHY.

Art. 36. *Memoirs of Mrs. Crouch.* Including a Retrospect of the Stage during the Years she performed. By M. J. Young. 2 Vols. 12mo. 9s. Boards. Asperne. 1806.

On opening these volumes, we were rather curious to ascertain what events in the life of this pleasing actress *required* to be exhibited to public inspection. We soon found, however, that we must expect nothing to rouse our attention, or excite our interest; and that, in fact, any theatrical name might serve to stand in the front of publications made up like the present, which is scarcely superior to a series of play-bills and newspaper stage criticisms. **O.**

Art. 37. *A Father's Memoirs of his Child.* By Benj. Heath Malkin, Esq. M. A. F. A. S. Royal 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1806.

The memoirs of a child who never completed his seventh year must be regarded as a curiosity of literature; and the enthusiasm of the parent

parent biographer, who proudly displays the traits of this prodigy of genius, can be no matter of surprise. Thomas Williams Malkin, who was born Oct. 13, 1795, and died July 31, 1802, was indeed a most uncommon child; for, according to the facts here stated, the faculties of his mind rapidly expanded at an age when the germs of intellect scarcely appear. That a boy at six years of age should write correctly, sketch designs with his pencil, form an imaginary country (another Utopia) in his mind, draw the map of it, with the names (all of his own invention) of its cities, rivers, lakes, islands, &c. write a kind of history of it, and even attempt the formation of its language; —that he should compose poetry, fables, and tales, and undertake dramatic composition;—are incidents of infantine history, which others besides a parent must contemplate with astonishment: but we are not sure that this precocity of genius is desirable; nor that this exhibition of it is likely to do any good, unless the melancholy termination of the tale should teach parents, instead of being solicitous for premature mental improvement in their children, to study to give them that vigour of constitution which is essential to their attainment of manhood.

We could have wished that Mr. Malkin had composed these memoirs with more simplicity. He flatters himself that he has waited till his passions are cool: but his readers will perceive that his ardor is not sufficiently chastised by judgment. When he tells us that his child, at five years of age, understood the English language with critical precision, could he hope to escape from being suspected of hyperbole; or do any of the specimens, astonishing as they are, bear him out in this assertion? His remarks on the psalm and little prayers inserted at p. 48 and 49, are also instances of extravagant eulogy.

In the long dedication to Mr. Johnes of Hafod, a biographical notice is inserted of Mr. William Blake the artist, with some selections from his poems, which are highly extolled: but if 'Watts seldom rose above the level of a mere versifier,' in what class must we place Mr. Blake, who is certainly very inferior to Dr. Watts? Moy.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 38. *Brookiana.* 2 Vols. Crown 8vo. 10s. 6d. R. Phillips.

In some general remarks, which we have on former occasions offered to the ~~public~~ reader respecting the merits of publications bearing the denomination of *ana*, we expressed our disapprobation of the plan of anatomizing the works of great men, and picking and culling such portions as the literary caterer thinks will form a palatable dish for the community. If, however, instead of melting down the rich ore of a good author, an Editor takes the pains to collect a miscellaneous fund of information respecting such a writer, his literary and domestic friends, his family connexions, his place of residence and pursuits in life, &c. &c. such a miscellany is calculated to furnish very useful and interesting amusement, and is a very agreeable mode of perpetuating the memory and memoirs of men who deserve to live in the remembrance of posterity. As the compiler of these volumes of Brookiana has adopted this latter plan, we have pleasure in patronizing his labors and recommending them to general notice. In such a variety

a variety of amusing anecdotes, letters, and extracts, from different quarters relating to Mr. Brooke, it would be difficult for us to select portions for our readers without embracing a wider scope than our limits allow; and we have no doubt that those, who have read the Fool of Quality, the tragedy of Gustavus Vasa, or some other of the various productions of Mr. Brooke, will take a pleasure in perusing this collection of papers, and not be satisfied with such specimens as we might be able to introduce into a corner of our Review.—In the mean time, as some of our readers may wish for a little acquaintance with Mr. Brooke and his family circle, we shall present them with a letter from one of his friends, describing his residence and domestic habits at Corfoddy in Ireland:

'When I came within six or seven miles of Mr. Brooke's, I was afraid I should mistake my way in such a wild part of the country, so that I asked almost every one I met, man, woman, and child, "Is this the road to Corfoddy?" every one knew Mr. Brooke, every one praised him, and wished he might live for-ever. As I knew that the author of Gustavus Vasa had written a great deal in praise of agriculture, I expected, of course, as I approached his house, that I should find it

"Bosom'd high in tufted trees;"

that his hedges would be covered with flaunting honey-suckle; that I should find his garden a second Eden, and that his grotto would exceed Calypso's fabled one. To tell you the truth, I never was so disappointed in my life; not a tree on the whole road to shelter the traveller from a shower; not a hedge to be seen; and the way so bad, that I am sure it must be impassable in the winter. His house stands on a barren spot, and the only improvement I could see, a little garden in the front, shaded with a few half-starved elms, that seem rather to have been planted by chance than design. I was told that he had just walked out; and, as it was uncertain which way he went, the old man that took my horse advised me to stay till his return, as he was sure his master would not be long out, as he heard him say that he had a great deal to do that day. I took his advice;—I was led into the library by an old woman, who told me there was pen, ink, and paper, if I wished to write, and that she would be very happy if I would accept of any refreshment after my journey. The library was small, but well-furnished with the best English and Roman Classics, and a small shelf of the most pious books in our language, such as the works of the author of the "Whole Duty of Man," Dr. Watts's, and the works of Bishop Kenn, with the following distich on the fly-leaf, in a neat female hand, probably by Mr. Brooke's mother:

"My son, peruse the works of pious Kenn,
The best of bishops, and the best of men."—

'I was charmed with the manner in which he received me. I was scarce half an hour in conversation with him, when I found I could trace him in all his writings. He was dressed in a long blue cloak, with a wig that fell down his shoulders, a little man, as neat as wax work; with an oval face, ruddy complexion, and large eyes, full

full of fire. In short he is like a picture, mellowed by time. Mrs. Brooke is in a very ill-state of health, she is quite emaciated, and so feeble, that she can scarce walk across the room. I never saw so affectionate a husband, and so tender a father, in my life.'—

'In the evening we walked into the garden; his favourite flowers were those that were planted by the hands of his wife and daughter; I was astonished at his skill in botany; he dwelt for some moments on the virtues of the meanest weeds, and then launched out into such a panegyric on vegetable diet, that he almost made me a Pythagorean; especially after the conversation I once had with that amiable and learned man, Dr. Hill, on this subject.'

This estimable man lived to an advanced age; and like many other distinguished characters, he survived those rich talents, which had delighted and instructed his cotemporaries, and which will long continue to transmit his fame in the works which they produced. Man.

Art. 39. *Prospectus of a Work intitled, A Philosophical and Experimental Inquiry into the Laws of Resistance of Non-Elastic Fluids, and Cohesion of Fibrous Solids*, as far as either is connected with the Theory, or Practice of Naval Architecture. Also Political and Commercial Strictures on the comparative State of Naval Architecture in Great Britain and India, in Three Parts. Part I. A View of the present State of Oak Timber in England, the Causes of its Scarcity, with the Prospects of a future Supply. Part II. A View of the Timber Trade of India, with a Plan for its Improvement, so as to obviate the increasing Scarcity of Oak Timber in England. Part III. A View of the present State of Naval Architecture in India, shewing in general the vast Resources in Naval Staples, contained within the British Dominions in that Country; from the due Cultivation of which, it is presumed, Great Britain might be rendered effectually independent of the northern Nations of Europe, for the Means of supporting her Navy. The whole to conclude with an Address to Jacob Bosanquet, Esq., Chairman of the Honourable the Court of Directors, on the Advantages which the Hon. East India Company, in particular, would derive from the Extension, Improvement, and liberal Encouragement of the Naval Resources of British India. In 2 Vols. 4to. By Alexander Mackonochie, Esq. 4to. 1s. 6d. Egerton.

We have little or no concern with a Prospectus, and we mention the present chiefly in order to intimate our wishes that the Author would publish the mighty work which he has in contemplation. Although he possesses not the gift or talent of expressing himself with neatness and conciseness, yet he may have made many valuable experiments relative to the resistance of solids moving in fluids. Proofs being as yet kept from us, his remarks are not open to controversy: but we venture to observe that many of his *assertions are hardy*.

We hope that the approaching undertaking may not prove too heavy for the shoulders of Mr. Mackonochie: for part of that undertaking is intended to prove 'that ships are at present designed without Science and constructed without Art!!' R.W.

Art.

Art. 40. *Retrospect of Philosophical, Mechanical, Chemical and Agricultural Discoveries*, being an Abridgment of the periodical and other Publications, English and Foreign, relative to Arts, Chemistry, Manufactures, Agriculture, and Natural Philosophy: accompanied occasionally with Remarks on the Merits and Defects of the respective Papers; and in some Cases shewing to what other useful Purposes Inventions may be directed and Discoveries extended beyond the original Views of their Authors. Vol. I. 8vo. 6s. 6d. Boards. Wyatt, Hatton Garden.

As must be evident from the title page, this compilation is not of such a nature as ought to exact from us any large portion of remark and criticism; since the memoirs, papers, &c. which are here abridged, have been already before the public. The abridgments, the Editors fear, and justly fear, may not always be so satisfactory as the originals. We have not given the work a thorough perusal, but strayed from one communication to another; and we must remark that one or two certainly were not satisfactory; the want of plates, also, is severely felt by the reader.—On the whole, however, we are disposed to view this collection of Abridgments, and critical Index, as likely to be highly useful. If the expence be not an insuperable objection, we recommend drawings and plans, &c. of machines, instead of verbal descriptions; and if these cannot be afforded, we advise the Editor not to attempt the description of any complicated machine. R.W.

Art. 41. *A Pocket Encyclopædia, or Miscellaneous Selections:* being Rudiments of useful Knowlege, from the first Authorities. Designed for senior Scholars in Schools, and for young Persons in general. Containing Information on a variety of Subjects not to be found in any Book of general Use in Schools; and yet by all Persons necessary to be known. Compiled by J. Guy, Writing Master of the Royal Military College, Great Marlow, Essex; Author of An English Grammar, &c. &c. 12mo. pp. 506. 4s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

That a work corresponding to such a title as is here presented to us would greatly benefit the public, and confer credit and emolument on its compiler, is too obvious to demand explanation: but unfortunately, it is also too obvious that, though Mr. Guy may be a very good writing master, he is by no means a master of good writing. That the 'author of an English Grammar' should repeatedly confound *principle*, the substantive, with *principal*, the adjective, is truly surprizing: but what shall we say of such sentences as these? 'There is what is called Jesuit's black, which *dye* black without first dying blue.' 'The wood is solid and ponderous, and so hard as to break the tools in felling *them*.' 'The brine of these pits commonly *obtain* four ounces of salt from a pound of brine.' 'The culture of citrons, lemons and oranges, *merit* particular attention.' 'The flesh of the pavies *adhere* to the stone.' 'Oil of olives is the most popular, and *most* universal *of all others*;' nay, it is reputed, 'one of the *most* universally useful things *in the whole world*.' 'The melting pots are as big as large hogsheads, and *contains*,' &c.

Similar

Similar faults are by no means rare in this Pocket-book of knowlege: but their number is still exceeded by that of errors of the press; and we are truly concerned to add that the selection of articles, and the mode of discussing them, bespeak a want of reflection and negligence of research. In the present state of physical science, should we teach that 'there are only six metals in all nature?' and that 'mercury is rather the mother and basis of all metals?'—that black-lead is found 'chiefly in lead mines,' and that it appears to be nothing 'but lead not yet arrived at maturity?'—that diamonds 'are only found [found only] in the East Indies?'—that one of the characteristics of stones is 'that they are infusible by heat?'—that 'stones are organized,' and that 'they draw their nutricious juices from the earth?'—that '*salix* is a *species* of the willow?'—that 'steatites is gathered always before sun-rise, and *in the morning*, when there falls no dew, so that a stock must be laid up in the summer-months, to serve all the year?'—that, 'in some places, it comes up an inch or two above the surface of the ground; but the sun rising on it makes it fall again?—and that 'every morning there returns a fresh crop?'

We certainly wish well to Mr. Guy's labours, and to the respectable seminary of institution with which he is connected: but we must beg leave to remind him that elementary compilations, for the information of youth, ought not to be executed in a superficial, uninteresting, and slovenly manner; and that he who professes to prepare a digest of general knowlege, for senior scholars, undertakes a task that calls for much judgment, diligence, taste, and talents. Indeed, we hesitate not to say, that the completion of such a design can never be attained by the ordinary process of mechanical compilation, and that the object is not below the dignity of the first philosopher of the age. Already, much mischief has been entailed on Society by the early adoption of erroneous statements, and the diffusion of prejudice among the thoughtless and unsuspecting. It is now time that learning and genius should condescend to mould the understanding and the morals of the young. **Muir.**

Art. 42. *Observations on the Climate of Ireland*, and Researches concerning its Nature, from very early Periods to the present Time, with Thoughts on some Branches of Rural Economy, particularly recommended in an Address to the Inhabitants and Friends of this Country. To which are prefixed Preliminary Considerations on the Structure and Function of Plants—on the Analogy between the Vegetable and Animal Systems—on the general State of Woods and Plantations in Ireland, in antient and modern Times—on peculiar Circumstances denoting the various Conditions of her Linen Manufacture throughout a Series of Ages—and on the Utility of the Co-operation of Art and Science in every Work wherein their joint Labours are required. By Wm. Patterson, M.D, Member of the Royal Irish Academy. 8vo. pp. 326. Gilbert and Hodges, Dublin.

The multifarious objects of this publication are fully expressed in its ample title. It contains much matter that is useful, and perhaps a little that is new: but it is immethodically put together, and in many

places we have to regret that it is not detailed with more accuracy. The volume commences with what are called preliminary considerations, which are divided into five sections, and occupy more than one-third of its whole bulk. Section I. contains remarks on the study of meteorology, which are sufficiently correct and judicious.—In section II. the author enters on the consideration of the anatomy and physiology of plants. Many of the observations on the first point are taken from M. Mirbel, a recent French writer, not much known in this country; and this part will therefore be particularly interesting to the English reader. On the vegetable physiology, Dr. P. likewise makes use of this author, and also enters largely into the opinions promulgated in Dr. Darwin's Phytologia.—Although this part of Dr. Patterson's work displays some degree of ingenuity, we must confess that many of his speculations appear to us crude and unfounded, and, in not a few instances, he has fallen into inaccuracies of considerable magnitude. In proof of this position, we quote the following sentence: 'The importance of the carbonic substance, or coal, to the nourishment of all vegetables, will be still more evident when we consider that it is one of the primæval principles of our globe: for it is found in carbonic acid gas, of which it constitutes above a fourth part; and this gas exists in lime-stones and other substances, which date from the first origin of things.' The proportion of pure carbon, which enters into carbonic acid gas, is somewhat less than one-fifth; it is carbonic acid, not carbonic acid gas, which exists in lime-stone; and lastly, we presume, there are several minerals which bear greater marks of antiquity than lime-stone.

With respect to the effects of vegetation on the different gases, the author adopts the opinions of Senebier; and he supposes that plants have the power of decomposing carbonic acid, and of appropriating to themselves the carbon, while the oxygen is emitted in the aeriform state. We cannot coincide with him in his remarks on electricity; and as to all that we find concerning the hyperoxygenation of vegetables, the accumulation of their irritability, &c. we confess that it appears to us in no other light than as the playful wanderings of the imagination.

In the 3d section, Dr. P. recurs to the importance of meteorological knowlege, and proposes that professorships should be appointen for the express purpose of teaching it; a measure which we think is quite unnecessary, and would perhaps be injurious. We next have some remarks on the former state of the forests in Ireland, and an account of the periods of their successive destruction, until the country was brought to that bare state which it now exhibits.

Section V. consists of a long dissertation on the antient Hibernian dress; and it contains a considerable portion of matter which, to an antiquary and an Irishman, may probably be interesting.

At length we approach the body of the work; and first we have an account of the state of the weather during the years 1801 and 1802. A great storm, which happened at the commencement of the latter year, leads Dr. Patterson to speculate on the cause of winds: but he does not appear to us to have brought forwards any thing particularly novel or satisfactory. Dr. Hamilton, in a paper in one of the late volumes

volumes of the Irish Transactions, took some pains to prove that the climate of Ireland had undergone an unfavourable change, particularly with respect to the growth of trees: but Dr. P. attempts to repel the charge, and, as it appears to us, with success. This unfavourable change is attributed by Dr. Hamilton to the greater violence and frequency of the west winds: but Dr. Patterson, from the examination of meteorological registers, shews that this idea is without foundation. He likewise produces a number of instances in which young plantations have been formed, in situations very much exposed to the west, and yet the trees have grown with vigour and luxuriance.—The greatest part of the remainder of the work is occupied with arguments addressed to his countrymen in favour of planting the unoccupied tracts of their island, and directions for carrying his suggestions into effect. The Doctor appears to have paid very minute attention to the subject, and offers a number of practical remarks, which, we doubt not, would prove of considerable utility to any one who was disposed to engage in the undertaking.—The directions for planting are properly followed by others for the making of fences, both such as may protect the young plants from the ravages of animals, and those which may serve as a shelter against storms.—The last chapter is on the culture of flax, and seems to contain much useful information; it is a subject of peculiar interest to the north of Ireland.

The work is very inaccurately printed; and the long list of errata, which is placed at the end, might be made much longer, if all the mistakes were specified.

Bos.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 43. *Repentance and Reform the only Ground of Divine Favour*—preached at West-Tillbury, Essex, on the Fast Day, Feb. 26, 1806. By the Rev. Sir Adam Gordon, Bart. Rector of that Parish. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons.

This general doctrine of fast sermons has rarely been urged with more seriousness and energy than on the present occasion. After having bestowed the highest praise on the late minister for his talents, patriotism, disinterestedness, and piety, Sir Adam descends to expostulate with his hearers on the vices of the times. His picture is truly alarming, and in a patriotic view he exhorts sinners to repentance.

Mo-y.

Art. 44. *National Blessings, Reasons for religious Gratitude*—preached at St. James's Church. Bath, on the Thanksgiving Day Dec. 5. 1805. By Richard Warner, Curate of St. James's parish. To which are prefixed Animadversions on two Sermons, just published, by the Rev. Edmund Poulter, Prebendary of Winchester. And a Character of the late Right Hon. Wm. Pitt. 8vo. 2s. Cuthell and Co.

In this sensible and manly discourse, the preacher insists on our peculiar obligations to religious gratitude, on account of our enjoying a *purified religion* and *civil liberty*, and being exempted from the local horrors of war. He is not less energetic in urging us to suitable expressions of gratitude to God, than in displaying the blessings by which our country

country is distinguished from every other in Europe. Though, however, Mr. Warner is zealous in the cause of his native land, he does not suffer his patriotism to run riot, and to waste its vigor in extravagant declamation. His objections to Mr. Poulter's Sermons arise from that gentleman's *outré* expressions both of censure and of praise. We have often lamented that our clergy should abandon themselves to the intemperance of passion, instead of endeavouring to exercise calm and fair discrimination, and should forget that they only expose themselves when they obtrude for truth such representations as credulity itself cannot swallow.

The subjoined character of Mr. Pitt, by a friend of Mr. Warner, is not so highly coloured as that which is drawn by Sir A. Gordon, or that of Mr. Poulter, but is a better likeness.

Mo.y.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We have received a letter from Mr. Seymour, relative to our review of his *Remarks on Shakspeare* in our last Number: but he must excuse us if we decline to resume the discussion, and if we express our opinion that he has not succeeded in throwing any new light on the subjects to which he adverts. He admits that the passage from Macbeth, quoted in p. 36. is '*incorrigibly* embarrassed,' and his supplemental remarks do not contradict that opinion. In the passage from Lear, in the same page, he still contends that there is a change of mood, and that "*Prize* me at her worth" is unequivocally *imperative*.

Do

The letter signed *Asiaticus* seems to be intitled to attention, but, as we can place no reliance on anonymous communications, we can neither print it wholly or in part, nor enter into any arguments respecting its contents. Indeed, to do this would be extra-official, any farther than as our own opinions were controverted or our statements contradicted.

X. Y. is requested to accept our thanks for his obliging and polite expressions.

Alpha and *Omega* is sollicited to exercise his patience: a number of letters occur to compose the alphabet, besides the first and the last.

☞ In the last *Appendix*, p. 513. l. 13. for 'De Wally,' r. *De Wailly*.—P. 515. l. 26. and 516. l. 13. for 'Françoſ,' r. *François*.